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ABSTRACT

This annual collection promotes scholarly writing, applied research findings, and innovative programs and activities in experiential education. 1987 papers include: (1) "The Effects of a Structured Camp Experience on Perceived Freedom in Leisure" (Mark James) on the effects of a structured camp experience on handicapped participants' perceived freedom in leisure; (2) "Gentle, Supportive and Non-punitive Techniques for Managing Camper Behavior" (Steve Hollenhurst); (3) "Research in Outdoor Adventure" (Alan Ewert), an overview and analysis of research in outdoor adventure recreation; (4) "Soft and Conceptual Skills" (Michael Swiderski) about interpersonal skills and critical thinking competencies as components of outdoor leadership; (5) "CERTIFICATION" (Simon Priest) about international trends in certification of outdoor leaders; (6) "Adventure Challenge as a Means of Containment" (Anthony Richards and Anthony Meyers) on adventure education as a means of delinquency prevention; (7) "Toward Fullest Participation--Suggested Leadership Techniques for Integrated Adventure Programming" (Greg Lais) about adventure program leadership techniques for integrating participants with various handicaps or diverse skill levels; (8) "Foster Families and Adventure/Challenge Therapy" (Thomas Smith) on adventure programs as therapeutic experiences for foster families and group home residents; (9) "Processing the Initiatives Course Experience" (Debra Jordan) on leadership techniques for bringing closure to a challenge education course; (10) "Optimizing Experiential Education with Young Children" (Jacqueline Davis, Mark Havens, Victoria DeSalvatore); and (11) "Connecting People and Plants" (Clifford Knapp) on the connection between people and nature and the use of this concept in outdoor education. Each paper contains an abstract, author profile, key words, and reference list. (SV)

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Volume II, 1987

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CONTENTS

vi Editorial Guidelines

iv Eitor's Comment

1 The Effects of a Structured Camp Experience on Perceived Freedom in Leisure
Mark James

7 Gentle, Supportive and Non-punitive Techniques for Managing Camper Behavior
Steve Hollenhurst

15 Research in Outdoor Adventure: Overview and Analysis
Alan Ewert, Ph.D.

29 Soft and Conceptual Skills: The Often Overlooked Components of Outdoor Leadership
Michael Swiderski, Ph.D.

37 CERTIFICATION: Always an Issue, but No Longer A Trend
Simon Priest

45 Adventure Challenge as a Means of Containment
Anthony Richards, Ph.D.
Anthony Meyers

55 Toward Fullest Participation — Suggested Leadership Techniques for Integrated Adventure Programming
Greg Lais

65 Foster Families and Adventure/Challenge Therapy
Thomas Smith, Ph.D.

73 Processing the Initiatives Course Experience
Debra Jordan

79 Optimizing Experiential Education with Young Children
Jacqueline Davis, Ph.D.
Mark Havens, Ed.D.
Victoria DeSalvatore, Ed.M.

91 Connecting People and Planets
Clifford Knapp

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Editor's Comment

THE BRADFORD PAPERS ANNUAL is designed to promote scholarly writing, applied research findings and innovative programs and activities in experiential education.

Experiential education includes areas such as camping, outdoor education, recreation, challenge and adventure programming. In addition, the **ANNUAL** considers generic articles that have application to the experiential education field. For example, articles that relate to human interaction, group development, risk taking, behavior, research design, management principles, etc., as they may translate to experiential education programs may be appropriate for inclusion in the ANNUAL.

The Bradford Papers Annual is one of the first refereed publications in the experiential field. Each article submitted undergoes extensive peer review by a minimum of three members of the Editorial Review Board. We invite your comments on the value of this new journal and hope that readers will be encouraged to support this new effort through article submissions and word of mouth promotion.

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The Effects of a Structured Camp Experience on Perceived Freedom in Leisure

Mark R. James

This article identifies the results of a 16-day, structured camping experience for participants (n = 7) with physical and mental impairments. While many studies cite evidence for the inclusion of these populations in traditional camp settings, little empirical evidence exists in support of innovative programs. Derived from sequential models for improving communication skills, refining problem-solving skills, and building group cohesion, a program of structured activities was identified. Of primary concern was to enable each individual to participate at their optimal level during a 100-mile Mississippi River canoe trip. Using the Perceived Freedom in Leisure short form (Ellis & Witt, 1986, Witt & Ellis, 1985), significant positive influences were noted in the participants' sense of control over their environment. These results appear to support the work of other researchers, and validate the provision of unique, outdoor recreational services for this population.

KEY WORDS: *Physically/Mentally Handicapped, Outdoor Recreation, Locus of Control.*

Within the profession of recreation and leisure services, considerable recent attention has been devoted to meeting the needs of physically and mentally handicapped individuals (Hendrick, 1984; Matthews, 1980; Wehman, 1970). Additionally, outdoor recreational programming has dramatically increased in the past few years (Roland & Hoyt, 1984; Thompson, 1982). While discussing various considerations involved in planning therapeutic activities, Malone and Mashek (1983) indicated that conventional forms of treatment are often enhanced by well organized outdoor programs. Specific goals which were cited include: skill-building, improved self-esteem, group dynamics, and group cooperation. These authors also noted that the opportunity to exceed perceived limits is an important aspect of outdoor activi-

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Mark R. James, M.S., RMT-BC, CTRS, an activity therapist at Elizabeth General Medical Center, Elizabeth, New Jersey, was a graduate intern at Bradford Woods, Martinsville, Indiana when the data for this research was collected.

The author wishes to acknowledge the financial support for this program provided by the Riley Memorial Association, Indianapolis, Indiana.

ties. In the words of Bureau (1983), challenging one's fears in a safe, supportive environment can be a positive growth experience. For many outdoor programs, this aspect of growth is of vital importance.

Outdoor recreational activities, including those conducted in camp settings, have been noted to be well suited to promote the overall psychosocial growth of individuals (Chenery, 1981). After reviewing 15 studies related to the effects of camping experiences, Myers (1978) concluded that influencing a positive change in self-concept is a primary focus of camping experiences. Chenery (1981) stated that while promoting social competence is a key objective of camp, positive influences may be found in other dimensions (i.e., consideration of others, and task orientation). Apparently, the positive experiences resulting from camp activities have specific influences, as well as a generalized effect on a variety of psychological and interpersonal domains.

While progress is being made in providing camping experiences to individuals with handicaps, it has also been noted that this movement may still exclude certain populations such as the mentally retarded, mobility impaired, and sensory impaired (Roland, 1982). Notable exceptions to this paradox can be seen in programs such as the Coolidge Handicapped Unbound Program (Gray, 1980), The E.C.H.O. program (Robinson, 1983), Wilderness Inquiry II (Schurke & Lais, 1982), and others.

While numerous references cite the current trend to provide services to the handicapped, a corresponding increase in research which attempts to document the effectiveness of these services has been slow to develop. Evidence must be provided which points to the efficacy of outdoor recreational services for the handicapped. In consideration of the points noted above, a study follows that describes an innovative, nontraditional camping experience for individuals with physical and mental impairments. Pre and post-camping data was collected to document the anticipated benefits of the experience.

Method

Subjects

The participants for this study consisted of a convenience sample of all those individuals who attended a specialized camping program at a large facility specializing in outdoor education, camping, and leadership development, located in a midwestern state. There were a total of seven participants (four male and three female), all between the ages of 16 and 18. Each participant had attended a related program at this facility in a previous year, thus, each camper was familiar with the surroundings. Of the seven participants, four were mildly mentally retarded, three were moderately mentally retarded (as reported by their parents), and each had a physical handicap. No attempts were made to verify these diagnostic labels as the camping program operated independently of the participants' educational or vocational settings. Considering this, some degree of arbitrariness is inherent in these labels; they are mentioned here only to offer a more complete description of this small study sample.

Procedures

All participants were administered the Perceived Freedom in Leisure Short Form, Children's Version (PFL) (Ellis & Witt, 1986, Witt & Ellis, 1985) during the check-in process when they initially arrived at camp. Parental permission notices were obtained prior to the assessments being conducted. Each participant individually completed the assessment with assistance (if needed) of staff who had been previously instructed on administration procedures. Following the final camp activity 16-days later, each individual completed the assessment a second time.

Treatment

As the treatment effect of this study consisted of the structured camp experiences, a brief description of the program is provided. The format of the camp program included adaptations of the National Leadership Conference Model (Kielsmeier & Hamilton, 1986), and Roland's adventure sequence (Hamilton & Daggy, 1986). The program included four global goals: (1) To enhance the participant's independent functioning, (2) To facilitate the participant's ability to be an active and effective member of a larger group, (3) To enhance the participant's self-esteem, and (4) To provide opportunities for the participant to interact with able-bodied peers. To evaluate the effectiveness of the treatment program in respect to the four long-term goals noted above, modifications in perceived freedom in leisure (locus of control) constituted one of the short-term objectives. A detailed description of the camping program's global development may be found in an article by Hamilton and Daggy (1986).

An intensive 16-day camping experience was provided to the study's participants. While each of the four global goals were considered in planning the activities, of prime concern was to provide a structure through which the participants would assume greater responsibility for their personal and group tasks. This emphasis on the participants' internal locus of control was viewed as necessary for the eventual synthesis and internalization of the program's benefits. In this manner, staff assumed the roles of facilitators, resource people, and peers, rather than leaders and teachers.

The first five days of the program consisted of various activities designed to focus on group cohesion, group cooperation, communication skills, problem-solving skills, and outdoor living skills. Specific activities included: "New Games," group initiative problems, canoeing, swimming, fire building and tent assembly skills, physical fitness and aerobics, low and high ropes courses, and a variety of evening social events. On the first evening, the participants were immediately pres ted with the responsibility for preparing their meal. Through the above activities and others, the group was guided gradually to being more self-directed.

The central portion of the program consisted of an eight-day, 100-mile Mississippi River canoe trip. Following the five-day orientation provided at the camp, the group repacked, broke camp, and together flew to St. Louis to begin this portion of the program. The trip was co-organized by the National Youth Leadership Council in commemoration of the United Nation's International Year of Youth. During the eight-day canoe trip, the participants were joined by a similar number of able-bodied youth from New Mexico. The opportunity for able-bodied and handicapped individuals to interact on this trip met one of the four global goals of the program.

Throughout the course of the trip, the participants had extensive exposure to situations demanding effective problem-solving skills, communication skills, and group cooperation skills; topics given specific attention in the initial five-day's activity schedule. These situations resulted from both environmental and interpersonal challenges. These events were discussed and reflected upon at the immediate conclusion of the trip.

Following the participants return to the base camp, two-days were spent on activities which allowed each individual to assimilate their new knowledge and skills into their personal lives. These activities included a group service project that the participants took primary responsibility for completing. Discussion groups were also conducted that focused on how each individual could more effectively use his/her leadership, problem-solving, and communication skills. As a final activity, a slide presentation was shown to the participants' families and friends.

Instrument

Ellis and Witt (1984, 1986) developed a set of assessment scales based upon the hypothesis that perceived freedom in leisure consists of four major elements: (1) perceived competence, (2) perceived control, (3) intrinsic motivation, and (4) playfulness. These scales consist of 95 questions, and are included in the comprehensive Leisure Diagnostic Battery (LDB) (Ellis & Witt, 1984). Upon the recommendation of users of the LDB, efforts were devoted to constructing a modified research version, which could be administered in a shorter time-span.

The Perceived Freedom in Leisure Short Form (PFL-SF) (Ellis & Witt, 1986; Witt & Ellis, 1984, 1985) constituted the pre and post-camping assessment instrument for this study. The PFL-SF was utilized due to its premise that individuals with a high perception of freedom in leisure would benefit most from their leisure experiences. Since one of the prime focuses of the camp program was to improve each individual's sense of control over their activities, demonstrating an improvement in their perceived freedom in leisure would constitute valuable justification for the scheduled activities and the global program's format. The PFL-SF was constructed by taking the 25 questions with the highest correlations to the full-scale score of the LDB scales. This tool was developed as a research screening device to detect possible problems in individuals' leisure functioning. Sample questions include: "My recreation activities help me feel important," and "I know a lot of fun recreation activities."

Standardization data for the PFL-SF was conducted with a variety of populations (i.e., high school students, college students, and hospitalized children with asthma). Reliability estimates indicate that the short form has a correlation of .94 with total scores across all 95 items. As a measure of its internal consistency, alpha reliability estimates range from .90 to .92. Discriminant validity has been shown with a variety of related psychological and sociological constructs (i.e., state and trait anxiety, and ego strength). Conceptual validity has been demonstrated through high correlations with Crandall and Slivkin's Leisure Attitudes Scale, Rosenberg's Self Esteem Scale, and the Willoughby Self Concept Scale (Witt & Ellis, 1984).

Results

All participants completed both applications of the PFL-SF ($n = 7$). Scoring procedures followed those suggested by Witt and Ellis (1984). Pretreatment scores yielded a mean of 2.35 ($SD = .44$), and posttreatment scores yielded a mean of 2.02 ($SD = .38$). Due to the small sample of participants, a nonparametric analysis of the data was completed. To assess the difference between the pre and posttreatment means, a Wilcoxon Test for two correlated samples was used (McCall, 1975). A preselected alpha of .05 was established, and in accordance with the a priori expectation of a positive treatment effect a one-tailed test was used. Under these conditions, a significant difference was noted at the .05 level, indicating that there was a positive treatment effect for this sample. The reduction in scores from pretreatment to posttreatment indicates that the individuals perceived fewer barriers to their leisure experiences.

Discussion

Due to the small number of participants in this study, the results should be carefully reviewed to assess possible generalization to other samples. Additionally, as no matching control group was identified, Hawthorne Effect cannot be overlooked. Beyond these limitations, this study appears to provide supportive data for the inclusion of individuals with physical and mental handicaps in a structured camp setting. Specific therapeutic effects may be focused on reinforcing the participants' perceived freedom in their leisure pursuits by actually guiding them to func-

tion more independently, both as individuals and as a group.

The positive results noted in this study appear to support those of other researchers and validate what has been assumed by outdoor education professionals. Shasby, Heuchert, and Gansneder (1984) noted several specific improvements in campers with a variety of disabilities. These authors were specifically interested in improving their participants' sense of perceived control over their environment. The results were similar to those described in this study - by focusing on each individual's maximal participation, positive changes in locus of control and self-concept are possible.

Suggestions for future research would include replicating this study with more subjects, and adding a second treatment group to control for potential intervening variables (i.e., gender, age, educational level). In considering the potential benefits of the study's treatment, future research designs should also include the eventual exposure of the control group to the camping experience. Data collection should also be collected on the able-bodied campers to evaluate any treatment effects (i.e., improved perceptions or attitudes toward individuals with handicaps). In respect to long-term influences, a six-month follow-up would have been helpful to evaluate any lasting attitudinal changes on part of the participants.

Future research should also attempt to investigate whether a "reality-based" approach to camping for individuals with handicaps will result in more concrete benefits than programs based around "structured success" models. It has been hypothesized that by focusing less attention on the handicap as a limiting variable (external locus of control) and placing more emphasis on developing self-initiated, innovative, adaptive skills and techniques (internal locus of control), a more positive sense of self will develop (Shasby, Heuchert, & Gansneder, 1984). In this manner, less attention should be placed on contrived experiences, and a renewed emphasis should be placed on practical, real-life camping experiences.

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Gentle, Supportive and Non-punitive Techniques for Managing Camper Behavior

Steve Hollenhurst

The purpose of this article is to present a philosophy of behavior management that is effective as well as reflective of current public and legal sentiment for practices that are gentle, supportive, non-punitive and positive. From this perspective, sixteen specific techniques for managing and modifying camper behavior are presented. The techniques are designed to be easily incorporated into the camp behavior management scheme. Emphasis is on moving beyond a reactive and defensive strategy based on techniques that can't be used, towards an approach that stresses the many gentle, supportive, and non-punitive techniques that can be used effectively.

KEY WORDS: *Camping, Outdoor Education, Behavior Management, Child Abuse, Program Practices, Staff Training.*

Discipline, or the lack thereof, continues to be identified by the public as the greatest and most pressing problem in education (Huber, 1984; Spaulding, 1983). Between 1969 and 1983, 14 of 15 Gallop Polls reported Americans view misbehavior as the most important problem facing educational institutions (Jones, 1984).

With this concern for more effective approaches to behavior management, educational leaders must also attend to current societal sensitivity towards punishment (Heitzman, 1983) and child abuse (Muellerlleile, 1986). Although the Supreme Court recently refused to agree that corporal punishment is a violation of the constitution's Eighth Amendment prohibiting "cruel and unusual punishment", nearly all extant research indicates that punishment - corporal or otherwise - is ineffective and even counterproductive to good discipline (McDaniel, 1980; Trotter, 1972).

The structured summer camp experience has become a popular form of short-

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term intervention. Research supports the contention that summer camps are effective means through which to modify behavior (Byassee & Tamberino, 1974). Like other educational institutions, however, camps have recently encountered pressure to adopt more effective and sophisticated methods for managing camper behavior (Ball, 1985). This public and legal pressure calls for more effective behavior management practices that are also inexorably gentle, supportive, non-punitive, and positive.

While this call is most keenly felt by programs for special populations such as children with learning disabilities or behavior disorders and delinquent adolescents, managing behavior has also become a significant concern in work with "normal" populations. Discipline has proven to be a particularly perplexing problem during the pre-adolescent and adolescent stages (Huber, 1984) that coincide with the populations served by many camp programs.

Behavior management practices have also become an important factor in parents' decisions to send their children. "Do you spank campers?" "How will you handle my child when he/she misbehaves?" These are questions this writer has found must be addressed with increasing regularity and sensitivity.

In response to these societal pressures, programs are scrambling to develop acceptable guidelines and program practices. The problem with many of these efforts, however, is they focus on what program staff **can't** do (no yelling, spanking, shaking, insulting, pushing, hitting, squeezing, taking away meals, etc.) rather than communicating what they **can** do. This is unfortunate, for there are, in fact, a great many gentle, supportive, and non-punitive tools at our disposal.

To help camps find solutions there is considerable literature on the subjects of discipline and behavior management. Unfortunately, finding a path through the material is difficult.

This difficulty is confounded by a lack of behavior management literature focused specifically on the summer camp experience. The purpose of this article is to present a philosophy of behavior management that is effective as well as reflective of current public and legal sentiment. Based on this philosophy, a set of specific methods and techniques will be presented that camps can use to manage and modify camper behavior.

Control and Support

Many children have not acquired the skills necessary for controlling their own behavior (Gephart et al, 1981). While this is evident in programs for behaviorally disordered campers, even the well adjusted camper needs help in further developing and reinforcing age-appropriate behaviors. Therefore, effective behavior management becomes a matter of:

1. Control. Applying external regulation to compensate for the campers lack of inner control.

2. Support. Assisting the camper in the development and reinforcement of his/her internal control.

The initial goal in behavior management is Control. When a child throws a punch, talks foul, destroys property, or refuses to participate positively in a group activity, the paramount task is extinguishing behavior. While the reasons behind the behavior are undoubtedly important, exerting external regulation to extinguish the behavior is the primary and immediate concern. Uncontrolled behavior must be viewed as a menacing force that, if left unchecked, can be detrimental to the camper, the group, the natural environment, and staff.

Yet Control by itself is only half the behavior management picture. Staff persons not only need to check and/or deter negative behaviors, but also guide, direct, lead, encourage, and reward positive behaviors. This is the Support phase. Assumed in the approach is the idea that misbehavior is inextricably linked to some de-

gree to factors existing within the learning environment; factors that can be controlled and modified (Wayson & Pinnell, 1982). Emphasis in this phase is on methods for preventing rather than correcting misbehavior. Research suggests that staff who adopt this type of proactive and preventative approach have fewer problems with misbehavior (Kounin, 1970).

The best tool for the Control and Support of camper behavior is a professionally, well trained, coordinated and involved staff. Consistency in staff philosophy, expectations, and methods of responding behavior is a primary factor in minimizing misbehavior (Rutter et al, 1979). Accomplishing the objective of an absolutely positive atmosphere depends upon a consistent staff working together in the positive motivation and reinforcement of the camper's behavior. Just as every community and family has laws, regulations, and behavioral expectations, so do camps. Control and Support is made easier through consistent application of these rules for living together.

Behavior management assumes that the lessons learned in one setting can be transferred to other settings. Grounded in established behavior reinforcement theory (Cotton & Savard, 1982) this approach is based on the idea that campers who learn to behave appropriately at camp can take these skills and successes home and apply them in their family and school environments.

Cotton and Savard (1982) suggest that an environment "characterized by a high degree of structure; clear and consistently enforced rules; and teacher awareness, monitoring feedback and reinforcement has a positive effect on time-on-task and achievement, and is effective in preventing/reducing student misbehavior". Camps must therefore establish simple and easily understood behavioral expectations and limitations. When these expectations and limitations are not observed, the consequences must be relevant and consistent while at the same time being as positive and non-punitive as possible. Again, the key is **we must remain consistent and non-punitive in the use of consequences any time those limits are exceeded.**

The question then arises as to what constitutes a positive non-punitive approach. Glasser (1975) suggests that positive behavior management is based on logical or natural consequences expressing the reality of a particular social order whereas a negative approach is authoritarian, arbitrary, and based on retribution. A positive approach places responsibility for appropriate behavior on the individual rather than imposing it on him/her by the punisher. A positive approach presents realistic options and choices for the individual to improve behavior. It is also an active learning process emphasizing ways to act that will result in more successful behavior. Finally, while a negative and punitive approach is relatively easy and expedient, a positive and supportive approach can unfortunately be difficult and time consuming.

Techniques for Managing Camper Behavior

The behavior management techniques included here are based on the idea that while we must never respond punitively: 1) misbehavior must nonetheless be dealt with in some manner, and; 2) behavior must be controlled before it can be treated. Given the public and research sentiment against approaches to behavior management, punitive techniques have been purposely omitted. It is contended here that these methods need not be part of a camp's behavior management scheme.

Relatedly, while the specifics of each situation dictate which technique or combination of techniques should or could be used, preference should be placed with technique that imposes the least necessary external control and restriction. In many cases, techniques can be used completely interchangeably. For instance, a verbal prompt and a time out may result in the same positive change in behavior.

Since the verbal prompt is clearly less restrictive, it is preferable over the time out.

The techniques are drawn from the behavior management strategy employed at a five to ten week summer camp program for emotionally disturbed, learning disabled, and/or socially disadvantaged children and adolescents. Campers are referred from and sponsored by a variety of sources, including school districts, social service agencies, nonprofit organizations, and parents. The program includes both a traditional residential camping experience for younger campers and an adventure based canoe trip experience for older returning campers. In both programs, remedial reading is a fundamental component of the daily routine.

The techniques are presented as follows:

1. *Establish a Formal Structure for Positive Behavior Reinforcement.* Camps can be viewed as places to experience success. Success contributes to positive self-esteem which in turn translates into positive behavior (Lasley & Wayson, 1982). Exemplary programs do not focus on formal rule enforcement and punishment programs. Instead, they engage in a variety of efforts to enhance self-perceptions. These efforts may include announcing and posting camper achievements, positive messages to parents and sponsors, award ceremonies, token economies, point systems, honor rolls, and special privileges for positive behavior. Although the type and effectiveness of reinforcement mechanisms can vary greatly, the goal is to help the camper develop and maintain a positive self-image which manifests as positive behavior.

2. *Signaling.* Each staff member should be encouraged to use a wide variety of looks and gestures to redirect aggressive or inappropriate behavior before the camper loses control. Looks of pride, satisfaction, disappointment, anger, surprise, and determination, often times exaggerated in order to make sure the meaning is communicated, can be very effective. Nonverbal gestures can also be used to communicate directions, commands, and "soft reprimands" (McDaniel, 1980).

3. *Verbal Prompting.* "Pat, you need to put your shoes on. . . Before we do anything else you have to put your shoes on. . . Pat, you need to put your shoes on."

Verbal prompts are used to focus the camper on the task at hand. A prompt may only have to be said once. As in the scenario above, however, it can also be used repetitively in order to communicate resolve and determination in the situation. Hopefully, the camper will eventually respond.

4. *Space and Distance Management.* Increasing or decreasing the physical distance between the staff and camper can relieve tension, excitement, and anxiety (McDaniel, 1980). For example, if campers who are easily excited and distracted are to act appropriately, a staff person may need to be close by, possibly even with hand on shoulder. On the other hand, some campers feel more comfortable and behave constructively if they have more space and independence.

5. *Genuine Interest and Involvement.* Anxiety and deterioration of behavior often result when campers face new and challenging situations. In these situations it may be best for staff to allow themselves to be drawn into the arena of the camper's concern so he/she doesn't have to face it alone. We can lessen anxiety and prevent misbehavior by showing a genuine concern for and involvement in the camper's situation. Campers need to know someone genuinely cares about them and will be there to help during times of difficulty. As Glasser (1975, p.23) states, "We learn responsibility through involvement with responsible fellow human beings..."

6. *Planned Ignoring.* A camper may act inappropriately in order to get a reaction; to make someone angry. In these situations, it may be best to ignore the negative behavior and reinforce positive behavior

at the first opportunity. By doing so, we are in effect giving the camper the attention they need without recognizing the negative behavior. In addition, it may be beneficial, on occasion, to tolerate annoying behavior, allowing the camper to release tension and excess energy. Annoying behavior can be tolerated, however, only as long as it is not destructive and does not have a contagious influence on the group.

Planned ignoring requires dogged determination. Once a staff person has decided on the use of this technique, all effort should be made to hold with the decision. To do otherwise merely tells the child that if a single negative behavior doesn't attract attention, several will.

7. *Regrouping.* A shift in group makeup can have drastic effect on behavior. For instance, if a camper is having difficulty controlling his/her behavior while playing with the cabin group, maybe all that is needed is to move the child to a smaller or different group.

8. *Activity Restructuring.* Activities wear out. With some campers, activities can run their course in a matter of minutes. If we insist on pushing activities after interest is gone, we should expect a deterioration in behaviors. We need to be flexible, sensitive to camper needs and interests, and prepared to draw upon a wide variety of program ideas. Doing so can have a significant positive effect on the group atmosphere and individual behaviors.

9. *Limitation of Space and Tools.* Many campers are easily distracted by the happenings around them. It may be necessary to control the surroundings so that the child does not feel the pressures of his/her own impulses. For instance, if a camper is supposed to be writing, but can't stay on task due to all the distractions in the library, it may be necessary to move a classroom, close the door, clear everything off the desk, and issue one sheet of paper and a pencil.

10. *Natural and Logical Consequences.* Dreikurs (1971, p. 80) defines natural consequences as the "natural flow of events without interference of the teacher or parent". A natural or logical consequence teaches the camper the rational reality of misbehavior (McDaniel, 1980). The key approach is the connection between the misbehavior and the consequence (Dinkmeyer & Dinkmeyer, 1976).

11. *Direct Appeal.* "Hey Mike, you know you shouldn't be splashing and horsing around in the canoe. I just want to make sure you understand that if you keep this up you'll have to go in to shore until you're ready to follow the rules...It's your choice, okay?"

When other methods are not working, negative reinforcement may solve the problem. Negative reinforcement allows the camper to terminate an inappropriate behavior freely. Sending a camper to sit on shore "for the rest of the period "is punishment; removing the camper from the group for a time out "until he/she is ready to follow the rules" is negative reinforcement. The purpose of this approach is to help the camper understand the reality of their behavior. Many children do have a poor understanding of cause and effect and need help seeing the results of negative behavior. Clearly understood limits along with relevant and immediate actions will help the camper improve poor behavior and avoid undesirable consequences.

12. *Appeal to Group Goals and Positive Group Pressures.* Group relationships are important to children, and behavior not in line with the positive goals and atmosphere of a group can put a wall between the child and the group. Recognition of this fact will pull him/her toward the group and result in behavior more in line with the positive direction of the group.

How is this accomplished? Group discussions, where positive group members apply pressure on the misbehaving individual to conform works well. Asking group members to discern the positive and negative behaviors of individual members also focuses on the problem.

13. *Use of Humor.* Under the right conditions, humor devoid of sarcasm and cynicism can be an effective means for terminating or redirecting inappropriate behavior. Focusing on the humor in a situation can also help staff members who feel intimidated by a camper to successfully carry out a confrontation.

14. *Counseling.* The term counseling is often used to explain all of the tools we use in working with campers. In this case, counseling refers simply to talking with campers. Only through talking are we able to gain insight into a child's tensions, insecurities, and fears. The first step to good treatment is the building of a positive relationship between the child and the adult authority figure. This is only accomplished through the attention they get when we talk with them.

Most of what the counseling camps do is of a mobile nature. We don't have offices or make appointments. We talk to a camper now, when and where the problem is occurring.

15. *Separation From the Group.* Removing a camper from the group (time out) is an extreme measure. It should be used sparingly and never have implications of rejection, retaliation, or punishment. Frequent or prolonged use of this technique may indicate either a problem with programming or perhaps staff inadequacies in dealing with unstable children. The specific, and perhaps the only situations in which the technique should be used are:

a. Possibility of physical danger to any member of the group.
b. The problem behavior is a result of the child's irritation towards the atmosphere of the group.
c. The child's behavior has put him/her in need of saving face with the group. Sometimes kids can't back down or improve their behavior because they think others will see it as weakness. In these cases we must not hesitate to remove the child, settle him/her down, and change the atmosphere so he/she can get along positively.
d. The camper's behavior may be contagious to the group.
e. The group must be given clear-cut demonstration of the limits and resulting consequences when these limits are exceeded. Again, we must take care not to threaten or show hostility and anger.

The primary purpose of a time-out is to help the child re-establish lost controls, not to punish for breaking rules or flaunting authority. The methods we use for assigning time-outs become important in determining whether the separation is a constructive or destructive experience.

When talking with the camper, he/she should be informed exactly why separation from the group is necessary. At this time the staff person assesses the camper's present attitude and ability to control their behavior. A decision then can be made whether the camper can return to the group at that time or if the separation should be for a longer duration. A specific amount of separation time need not be established during this process. If the camper seeks a definite amount of time, he/she should be told there is not a definite amount of time and that the separation will last until their behavior, attitude, and level of responsibility indicate a readiness to return to the group.

During this counseling, the camper should come to understand exactly why he/she was separated. It is equally important that he/she be given direction and support in order to act appropriately and exert better control when rejoined with the group. Again, time-outs should never be used to threaten, punish, or intimidate a child.

16. *Seek Assistance.* Staff persons should feel they can seek out assistance whenever behavior management situations or questions arise. They must be assured that this won't be interpreted as weakness or lack of skill.

Dealing with behavior problems should be expected. With some populations, it even demands the majority share of staff

time and program resources. In order to handle these situations constructively and in the camper's best interests, other staff need to be involved.

Therefore, supervisory staff must be in place with the assigned role of assisting other staff with the more severe behavior situations. In programs with generally well behaved campers this role can be filled by unit leaders, program supervisors, or the program director. Minimal experience and training are required. In programs for delinquents, children with behavior disorders, and the retarded, it is probably necessary to have a trained therapist handle the more severe situations and oversee the overall behavior management scheme.

Conclusion

The techniques outlined above are designed to be easily incorporated into a camp behavior management strategy. During pre-camp training, each technique should be explained in detail accompanied by role playing vignettes that illustrate each approach. Role playing can also be used to practice the application of a certain technique, or to evaluate staff member's competence with the techniques.

The choice of technique employed in a given situation has to be made by the individual staff member. While it would be unreasonable to expect perfect implementation given the complexities of a child's mind, a sound grasp of the gentle and non-punitive techniques available along with an understanding of the behavior management concepts upon which they are based will greatly increase counselor effectiveness. It is time to move beyond reactive and defensive behavior management strategies and embrace an approach that emphasizes the many supportive, non-punitive, and yet effective techniques as are discussed herein.

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Research in Outdoor Adventure: Overview and Analysis

Alan Ewert

This paper reviews the research efforts made in the field of outdoor adventure recreation. It provides a historical overview of those research efforts and provides a number of proposals for improving those efforts. In addition to this analysis, four perspectives for future research efforts in outdoor adventure are provided: psychological, sociological, economic and environmental.

KEYWORDS: *Adventure-based Education, Challenge Education, Outdoor Education, Outdoor Pursuits, Research, Scientific Inquiry.*

> *"The tragedy of Science is the slaying of beautiful hypotheses with ugly facts." T. H. Huxley*

How do we know the world? How do we get a sense of what is real and what is illusion? As the general public, we have the luxury of using hearsay and intuition. Program planners often employ the added benefits of reading and observation. As researchers and evaluators the questions are approached through systematic inquiry and testing. It is at this point that the question often arises as to what research has done and should do in the area of outdoor adventure recreation. This paper will provide an overview and analysis of the research done to date in outdoor adventure recreation.

In the Beginning

Outdoor Adventure recreation can be defined in the following manner:
a self-initiated, non-consumptive recreational activity engaged in a natural outdoor setting, that contains real or perceived elements of risk in which the outcome is

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uncertain but influenced by the participant and/or circumstance. (Ewert, 1985a).

The history of systematic inquiry and research into these types of programs originated in the 1950's. It was during this time period that efforts were first made to identify the extent and impact of adventure-based activities upon the individual. Schraer (1954) attempted to identify the number of public schools using survival training programs in their curricula. Three years later, Morse (1957) wrote on of the first scientific articles on the therapeutic values of outdoor camping. His points concerning the advantages of outdoor programs, including: control without institutionalization, real living situations, motor outlets for catharsis, creative learning and adventures without anti-social behavior, serve to remind future researchers not to re-invent the wheel; but rather to move on to additional areas of concern.

The 1960's marked the beginning of the **Social Benefits** phase of outdoor adventure recreation. The works by Kelly and Baer (1968, 1969, 1971), considered a foundational work in the field, provided some initial and relatively conclusive evidence that adventure-based activities can produce socially desirable benefits such as reduced recidivism rates. In addition, the work by Moses (1968) and Moses and Peterson (1970) provided additional support for the positive effects of participation in adventure-based survival courses with demonstrated improvements in G.P.A. and eligibility for academic readmission.

It was also during this time when the first of a long line of research efforts on **Benefits to the Individual** was seen. Beginning with Clifford and Clifford (1967) this research tract included many noteworthy studies such as those by Adams, 1970; Smith, 1971; Wetmore, 1972; Heaps and Thorstenson, 1974; Nye, 1976; Robbins, 1976; George, 1978; Stogner, 1978; and Black, 1983. The most prolific effort has been in the area of improving self-concept, followed by self-actualization (Vander Wilt and Klocke, 1971; Young and Crandall, 1984), modification of levels of fear (Ewert, 1986) and self-efficacy (McGowan, 1986).

The third area of research could be termed the **Wilderness Experience.** Efforts in this area have involved investigating topics such as: motivations (Young, 1983; Mitchell, 1983; Kaplan, 1984; Ewert, 1985b), expected benefits (Lambert, 1978; Schreyer and White, 1979; Driver and Brown, 1987; Ewert, 1987) and levels of satisfaction (Manning, 1986). Inherent in many of these studies is the underlying dimension of participation in some form of outdoor adventure recreation, (e.g. backpacking, rock climbing, or whitewater canoeing).

Subsumed within all three research areas is the theme of outdoor adventure as a type of therapeutic intervention. A substantial research effort has been made linking outdoor adventuring as a form of therapy with goals such as enhanced self-concept, improved social attitudes and behavior, improved physical health or reduced emotional problems (Barcus and Bergeson, 1972; Wright, 1983; Smith, 1982, 1985a; Robb and Ewert, 1987).

To date, there is a substantial amount of research literature currently available concerning outdoor adventure. In terms of numbers alone, Thomas (1985) reports over 700 articles written on adventure education, many of which are research studies. There are also a number of concerns which have constantly appeared. The following section discusses those concerns and provides an assessment of the current state of research in outdoor adventure recreation.

A Research Assessment

One of the earliest and most comprehensive attempts at assessing the quality of the research work done in outdoor adventure was done by Shore (1977). While focused primarily on Outward Bound, this work covers a variety of different types of programs and methods. Of further use is Shore's comprehensive bibliography,

which includes a wide mix of bibliographic topics such as education, psychology, corrections, and other literature available at the time.

As a framework for discussion, Shore developed two categories of studies. These categories consisted of those studies "included" in the assessment because of their ability and research methodology and those studies "not included". It should be noted, however, that one criticism of Shore's work has been the lack of an explicitly stated criteria for categorizing the various research (Kraft, 1985). Studies which comprised the "not included" category were deemed as too flawed or conceptually unsound to warrant an elaborate assessment. Shore's conclusions concerning the quality of the research completed up to that time were guarded and reserved.

> One must conclude, overall, that the research literature of Outward Bound and the research literature up to that time in adventure education is weak. It has focused on disciplinary issues (self-concept, self-esteem) to the virtual exclusion of their relationship to programmatic issues (length of course, mix of activities, and nature of instruction). There have been few attempts to link outcome measures with program components and very little statistical analysis in this sense as opposed to statistical reporting. (Shore, 1977).

While the most comprehensive, Shore's work was only one of several occurring during the 1970's. A fact not surprising when one considers that after the change and experimentation in both education and recreation of the 1960's, there was much more to write and research about in the 1970's . One particularly popular form of reporting was the annotated bibliography. Within this category, a substantial number of studies have been reported by Mattews (1976), Pollak (1976), Thomas (1985) and Colan (1986). Other useful bibliographies and listing of abstracts included: the American Alliance of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance series entitled, "Research in Outdoor Education: Summaries of Doctoral Studies", and the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) and the Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools (CRESS) supplements entitled, "Selected Bibliographies in Outdoor Education".

While useful from a documentary perspective, the annotated bibliography provided little guidance to the researcher concerning an evaluation of the conceptual basis of the study, it's methodology and the credibility of the findings. From the research perspective, of greater use are the works of Vogl and Vogl (1974), Godfrey, 1974, Iida (1975), Lowenstein, (1975), Shore (1977), Staley (1979), Burton (1981) and Ewert (1983). Within each of these works, critiques of the selected studies and suggestions for the direction of future research efforts are provided. Table 1 summarizes the observations of several aforementioned authors.

The general view of the research done in the field of outdoor pursuits has been reserved, due primarily to the overreliance on self-selected samples and measures using a self-report format. Despite these reservations, there have been literally hundreds of studies which have purported benefits from participation in outdoor pursuits. These studies have employed a number of methodologies, as listed in Table 2 and have generated findings in a variety of areas. These areas have included: therapeutic dimensions, individual and group benefits, behavior modification and motivations for participation. The generalized findings of a selected group of studies in each of the above mentioned areas are presented in Tables 3, 4, 5, and 6.

While the studies listed in the Tables were selected because of their "representativeness" there are many other studies which were not listed. As Iida (1975: 219) correctly notes, however, most of the

Table 1

SUMMARY OF SELECTED RESEARCH ANALYSES IN OUTDOOR PURSUITS

	OVERALL IMPRESSION OF COMPLETED RESEARCH	SPECIFIC PROBLEMS	RECOMMENDATIONS
Vogl and Vogl (1974)	Insufficient and limited Usually done by graduate students Few national reporting on findings	Few historical, philosophical or course content studies Insufficient training in graduate programs	Larger samples More evaluation studies of program Distinguish between cognitive and affective
Iida (1975)	Generally positive benefits Wide range of paper and pencil instruments Self-theory framework	Overuse of standarized instruments Unsophisticated research designs "Ceiling Effect" of participants Small sample size	More measurement of behavioral modifications Reasons for non-participation Presence of long term effects
Shore (1977)	Focus on outcomes Lack of emphasis on program components Substantial supportive literature	Little statistical analysis Over-emphasis on descriptive reporting	Identify effects of various program components More sophisticated statistical analysis
Ewert (1983)	Mixed but generally supportive Substantial convergent validity	Few causal comparative designs Over-reliance on convenience sampling Over-projected expectations	Development of casual models Studies using more "main stream" populations Construction and testing of explanatory theories

Table 2

TYPES OF RESEARCH IN OUTDOOR RECREATION

• historical	• correlational
• descriptive	• experimental
• case study	• quasi-experimental
• observational	• critical-incident
• causal	• single-subject
• behavioral analysis	• time sampling
• ethnographic	• mechanized collection

Table 3

THERAPEUTIC DIMENSIONS

• The Therapeutic outdoor camp	Morse (1957)
• Self-acceptance	Vander Wilt and Klocks (1971)
• Coping rather than defensive strategies	Bechtel (1972)
• Re-entry problems	Robbins (1976)
• People with disabilities	Roland and Havens (1981) Smith (1982; 1985)
• Self-actualization	Young and Crandall 1984)
• Wilderness group therapy	Nurenberg (1985)
• Risk recreation and persons with disabilities	Robb and Ewert (1987)

Table 4

INDIVIDUAL/GROUP BEHAVIOR

• Reduced recidivism	Kelly and Baer (1969, 1971)
• Reduced drop-out rates	Moses (1968)
• Increases in G.P.A.	Moses and Peterson (1970)
• More realistic perceptions of self	Yenser (1972)
• Reduced racial conflict	Potts (1974)/Nelson and Martin (1976)
• Reduced deviant behavior	Gaston, et. al., (1978)
• Long-term environmental attitudes	Crompton and Sellor (1981)
• Effectiveness in substance abuse	Stich (1983)

Table 5

SELF-CONCEPT/SELF-ESTEEM/LOCUS OF CONTROL

• Improved self-concept with lower initial levels	Clifford and Clifford (1967)
• Enhanced internal locus of control	Borstelman (1970)
• Higher levels of self-concept after one-year follow-up	Heaps and Thorstenson (1974)
• Significant improvement in self-concept when compared to control	Nye (1976)
• Equalizing on pre-test (covariate) significant improvement	George (1978)
• Increases in self-esteem	Bertolami (1982)
• Positive relationship between program length and self-concept	Ewert (1982)
• Situational specific self-concept	Wright (1982)
• Increases in multi-dimensional self-concept	Marsh (1986)

Table 6

MOTIVATIONAL CLUSTERS IN LEISURE PURSUITS

Tinsley and Johnson (1984)	**Ewert (1985)**	**POCA (1986)**
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	MOUNTAIN CLIMBING	OUTDOOR RECREATION
• intellectual stimulation	• challenge/risk	• excitement seeking
• catharsis	• catharsis	
• expressive compensation	• physical setting	• escapism
• hedonistic companionship	• recognition	• fitness
• supportive companionship		• sociability
• secure solitude	• locus of control	
• routine, temporary indulgence		
• moderate security		
• expressive aestheticism	• creative	

studies done in the area of outdoor pursuits revolve around a self-theory framework. This theory suggests that individuals behave in a manner congruent with how they perceive themselves. Where outdoor pursuits come into play is in the corollary of this theory which states that an individual's response to a situation both reflects and determines his/her current state of self-concept. In outdoor pursuits, a under researched postulate of this theory suggests that an unsuccessful or debilitating adaptation to this outdoor situation may cumulatively effect the self-concept in a negative way. For example, little is known as to what happens to an individual if he/she fails to complete a course component such as rock climbing.

While as previously stated, the primary thrust of the majority of the research efforts to date in outdoor pursuits have been concerned with some permutation of the self-theory concept, there are a variety of additional areas and issues in need of investigation. These areas are listed in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 7

CURRENT RESEARCH TOPICS IN OUTDOOR ADVENTURE EDUCATION

Participation Rates

Demographics

Program availability

Cost/Benefit Analysis

Physical Fitness

Social Integration

Level/Types of Fears

Self-Efficacy

Motivations/Benefits

Price Elasticity

Staff Selection and Development

Program Components:

- length
- order of activities
- type of activities
- location and topography
- participant characteristics
- season

Model testing and Verification

Historical Events and Emerging Trends

Transfer/Generalization

Staff Burn-Out and Turn-Over

Certificaiton

Marketing

Table 8

RESEARCH AND EVALUATION ISSUES IN OUTDOOR PURSUITS

Latent vs. Measuring Variables

Model Testing

Single-subject Designs

Naturalistic Inquiries

Behavioral/Archival Analysis

Documentary Evidence

Validity Concerns: Triangulation Techniques

Computer Applications

Mutivariate Statistics

Experimental/Quasi-experimental Design

Matching/Blocking Procedures

Multivariate Analysis

Goal Evaluation

Sample Size and Type

Implementation/Measurement Problems in Programs

Attrition/Non-respondents

Multiple Indicators

Scale/Instrument Development

It should be noted that while it may appear redundant to list self-concept as a topic in need of further research, what is suggested here is a greater sophistication in this type of analysis. While studies in self-concept have historically used a self-report psychological measure, little has been found concerning the nature or reasons for any observed change. Future studies of self-concept changes through outdoor pursuits can contribute to a greater overall understanding by focusing in on how, why and when change occurs.

The lesson generated by this historical perspective on the research completed in outdoor adventure is that the future of meaningful and "acceptable" research in this area lies in the area of methodological pluralism; that is, the use of a variety of approaches and techniques. In addition, there is a need for more sophisticated analytic procedures and methods. What we know about the effects of participation in outdoor pursuits upon individuals has been generally been derived from: (1) their everyday conduct (naturalistic/ethnographic studies and direct involvement of

the researcher as a participant), (2) the impressions made on others (observation techniques), (3) self-characterizations and reports (personality inventories and surveys), (4) what others have written (documentary and literature inquiries) and (5) their observed behaviors (behavioral analyses and mechanized data collection). Given the complexity of the human organism, including the affective, behavioral and cognitive components of the human experience, the inherently diverse agenda for research of the human experience, the inherently diverse agenda for research in outdoor pursuits must encompass as many different sources of information as possible. [For a similar analysis in the area of personality research see Craik (1986).]

Unfortunately, this need for methodological pluralism has been transformed in reality to an overreliance on paper and pencil measurement of attitudes, most notably self-concept, using a self-report format. Webb, et. al., (1966) have elegantly summed this overreliance in the statement:

Almost everything we know about the attitudes [in the social sciences] is also suspect because the findings are saturated with the inherent risks of self-report information. One swallow does not make a summer; nor do two "strongly agrees", "one disagree", and an "I don't know" make an attitude. (p.172).

These statements imply that present and future researchers need not automatically cast aside the techniques of self-report or questionnaires, but rather use these methods in conjunction with other methods. What will continue to impede these efforts will be the problem of integration of the findings of a cross-method study. Cattell (1979) and Glancy (1986) offer interesting procedures to account for these difficulties. Said otherwise, the findings of behavioral, anecdotal and self-report research generally produce different measurement units and will need to be integrated into generalized findings.

Some Concluding Reasons

Given all the concerns and relative immaturity of the field of outdoor adventure research, what can be concluded about this line of inquiry? First, it should be recognized that research in any field has an accumulative role in that the purpose of science is to develop explanatory theories and concepts. These theories and concepts use research questions and hypotheses to investigate relationships between variables. Upon testing these hypotheses, the findings are used to support, refute or redesign the original theories and concepts. This accumulative role of research is illustrated in Figure 1.

If research in outdoor adventure is to move beyond the earlier criticism of Shore (1977), i.e., too few analytical studies, the development, testing and modification of theories and concepts must play a more pivotal role. To date, there is an overemphasis on measurement and a corresponding deficiency in both conceptualization and direct observation. Given the substantial amount of research already done in outdoor pursuits, there can be little doubt that participation in these types of programs and activities can provide a variety of benefits for the individual and group. These potential benefits can be psychological, sociological, educational and physical and are listed in Table 9.

These benefits, however, are outcome benefits and while the raison d'etre of outdoor adventure programming, documenting these benefits often does little in explaining how and why they have occurred.

Moving beyond description into one of explanation will prove to be as difficult as it is necessary. This involves a more in-depth understanding of the related fields of psychology, sociology, and education. In addition, this movement will entail the excruciating task of formulating and testing theories which will be both useful and accurate. According to Slawski (1981), to be effective a theory must be relatively

Figure 1

THE ACCUMULATIVE ROLE OF RESEARCH

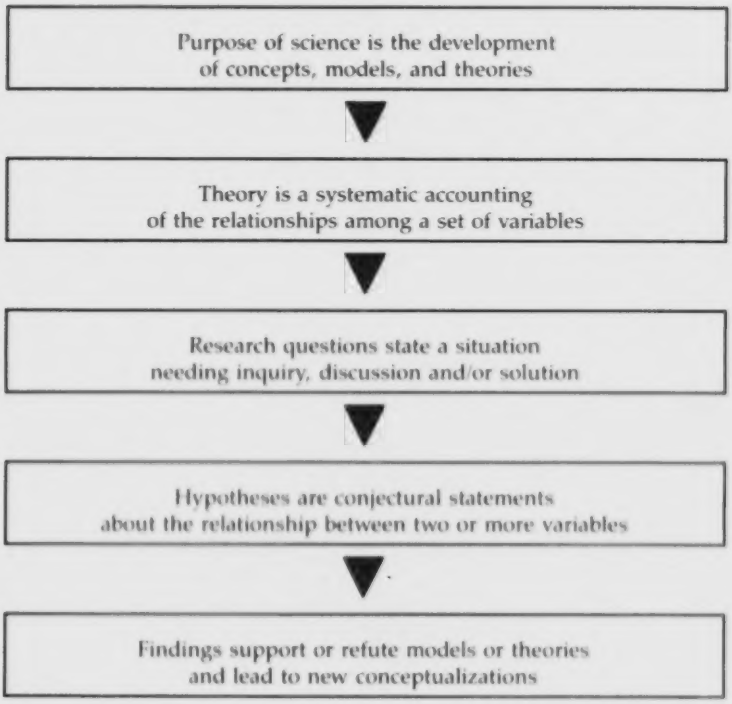
Purpose of science is the development of concepts, models, and theories
Theory is a systematic accounting of the relationships among a set of variables
Research questions state a situation needing inquiry, discussion and/or solution
Hypotheses are conjectural statements about the relationship between two or more variables
Findings support or refute models or theories and lead to new conceptualizations

Table 9

POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF OUTDOOR ADVENTURE RECREATION

Psychological	Sociological	Educational	Physical
Self-Concept	Compassion	Outdoor Education	Fitness
Confidence	Group Cooperation	Nature Awareness	Skills
Self-efficacy	Respect for Others	Conservation Ed.	Strength
Sensation-seeking	Communication	Problem-solving	Coordination
Actualization	Behavior Feedback	Value-Clarification	Catharsis
Well-being	Friendship	Outdoor Techniques	Exercise
Personal testing	Belonging	Improved academics	Balance

easy to apply, provide valuable information, enhance predicability of a phenomenon, and have explanatory power.

In outdoor adventure, what is needed is the development of a body of knowledge from which future research can be grounded. This entails moving away from the compilation of independent unrelated studies and toward an integration and building upon of past research work. Theory-based research can contribute to this continuity within the body of knowledge surrounding outdoor pursuits.

Furthermore, there are four distinct but complementary perspectives in outdoor pursuits research. First, there is the **psychological** perspective. While the most widely used viewpoint, this perspective subsumes the behavior of the individual as well as his/her attitudes, feelings, etc. Studies on leadership training and cognitive development would also fall into this category of research.

The second framework from which to conduct outdoor pursuits research is the **sociological** perspective. From this perspective, the researcher is concerned with what happens in a group context. Of particular interest may be the hedonistic tone of the group, the communication patterns or support structures that develop. Similar to the psychological, this perspective has obvious implications for research in outdoor pursuits.

The **economic perspective** is the third framework from which researchers can base their inquiries. This perspective includes the allocation of resources such as land areas, in addition to the most commonly thought of cost-benefit and income-generating studies. For example, recent articles by Schreyer and Knopf (1984) and Dustin and McAvoy (1982) have examined the concepts of succession and displacement (i.e. how outdoor adventure recreationalists get moved out or leave a particular area) and their implications for participation in outdoor pursuits.

The fourth perspective, **interaction with the natural environment** implies the generation of information which is focused on how outdoor pursuits use, impact and interact with the environment. One topic of current interest is the impact outdoor programs have on a natural area over a period of time.

While there may be other perspectives of outdoor adventure research which could be added, present and future researchers need to ensure that their particular work provides for continuity and contributes to the knowledge base. To date, there needs to be a greater relatedness between the various past and present studies being conducted. This current state of research affairs is symptomatic of research done primarily by graduate students rather than professional researchers. Other recommendations for enhancing the research effort in the field would include the following:

1. Analysis of the need for and demand of outdoor pursuits in contemporary society.
2. Studies of the various systems for the delivery of outdoor pursuit programs and activities.
3. Identification of the trends and emerging patterns in outdoor pursuits.
4. The development of explanatory and predictive models of outdoor pursuits participation and behavior.
5. The application of more studies using an interdisciplinary approach.

[For a similar discussion on recommendations for leisure research see Smith and Ng (1982)].

In summary, the purpose of this paper is to suggest ways which enhance the effectiveness of research in outdoor adventure. This is desirable not because it increases acceptance rates in refereed journals but rather because ultimately the participant and natural environment will benefit. Systematic and rigorous investigation can be used to help sharpen the focus of outdoor-based programs and strengthen the intuition of the program staff. This is an important consideration,

when one considers that this intuition coupled with observation and personal involvement ultimately provides the motivation to continue these types of activities and research. People and organizations offer outdoor adventure programs because they feel there is something intrinsically beneficial and productive that happens when humans and adventure meet. Better utilization of the research tools available can help support that process and avoid the dilemma poised by Reinharz (1979) where research generates data instead of meaningful findings.

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Soft and Conceptual Skills: The Often Overlooked Components of Outdoor Leadership

Michael Swiderski

It is felt that a number of the outdoor leadership training programs, and our outdoor profession as a whole, falls short in the development of interpersonal and human relations skills (soft skills) along with problem solving, decision making, judgement ar.d other critical thinking competencies (conceptual skills). Hard skills as well as soft and conceptual skills are defined and their components are illustrated with examples. The wrong assumption has been made by many in the outdoor profession that just hard skills training makes one a leader. The acquisition of hard skills is only one part of the leadership development process. The development of soft skills is the second part and the acquisition of conceptual skills is the third part of the leadership development process. We should borrow from those professions which are adept in soft and conceptual skills. A selected list of those professions include the fields of education, psychology, philosophy, counseling, sociology, speech communication, military science and business management.

KEY WORDS: Soft Skills, Hard Skills, Conceptual Skills, Outdoor Leadership, Training, Curriculum Development, Judgement, Decision Making, Problem Solving.

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Moments prior to being introduced to present a conference paper on soft skills in outdoor leadership training I was seated at the front of the auditorium reviewing my notes one last time. A young gentleman sat nearby, looked around, then asked if he was in the session on "software". I smiled and chuckled to myself saying no, but it was the session on "soft skills". "What are 'soft skills'?" he asked. I responded by saying, "They are the interpersonal components of leadership, the 'people' skills."

Confusion may exist as to what soft skills are, just as the young gentleman was confused with computer "software". The purpose of this paper is to explore the often overlooked soft skills and conceptual skills which are essential for effective outdoor leadership. This will be accomplished by presenting components not often taught in leadership training sessions to enable outdoor program and camp administrators, current outdoor leaders, and future camp counselors to: 1) self-evaluate "in house" outdoor leadership training curriculums, 2) identify outdoor leadership components to be included in future leadership training courses, 3) self-evaluate personal outdoor skill repertoire, and 4) identify outdoor leadership skills which need strengthening.

In order to explore the often overlooked components of outdoor leadership it is important to gain a clear understanding of what is meant by the terms "hard skills", "soft skills", and "conceptual skills". Examples of each are given and their importance will be clarified. Common professional resources are reviewed relating to soft skill and conceptual skill development.

Hard Skills

Hard skills are most visible, the most exciting and therefore the most marketable skills in outdoor programs. Hard skills are the methods, processes, procedures, techniques and the use of outdoor equipment to gain competencies in the physiological, environmental, safety, technical and administrative components of outdoor recreation/education. The hard skills are tangible, relatively easy to teach, capable of being measured and therefore evaluated.

In order to compare definitions between hard, soft and conceptual skills, each of these skill areas will be broken down into components to help organize these three types of skills. The hard skills may be broken into five components: physiological, environmental, safety, technical and administrative (Rogers, 1979, p.4).

Physiological. The physiological component includes those skills encompassing the maintenance of a sound physiological body and the physical restoration/treatment of an injured participant or leader. The physiological component includes, but is not limited to, maintaining physical fitness, promoting health, and treating blisters and common backcountry ailments. Other examples of the physiological component of hard skills may include administering first or second aid, or bringing a hypothermic victim back to normal body temperature

Environmental. The environmental component includes those skills relating to the interpretation and protection of the natural surroundings. Training in the environmental component may include such competencies as interpreting weather systems and understanding and promoting an environmental ethic (not only in yourself but in others). Understanding ecological principles and knowing the natural history of an area are also a few examples of the environmental component.

Safety. The safety component includes the skills necessary to render a safe activity, free from injury and secure from danger or loss. Some examples may include practicing the fundamentals of accident prevention and group security, taking necessary precaution, implementing risk management techniques and developing a critical eye for safety.

Technical. Technical hard skills are the most common cornerstones for outdoor

leadership training. This component incorporates the competencies required to teach the group knowledge, skills and attitudes related to the activity, environment and safety (Priest, 1987, p. 5; Swiderski, 1981, p.108.). Some examples of technical hard skills may include a proficiency in belaying, rappelling and tying 16ots; competency in the self-arrest, construction of snow shelters and the teaching of telemark turns; proficiency in off-trail navigation, river crossings and eskimo rolls. The technical component may also include special knowledge in mechanical repairs and maintaining the condition of nordic skis or other outdoor equipment.

Administration. The administrative component of hard skills incorporates the "behind the scenes" actions in managing, directing, operating, supervising and evaluating an outdoor program. This component refers to the ability to program plan, to evaluate, understand legal liability and being competent to organize and conduct functional meetings. The administrative component may also include the capability of setting program goals and developing objectives. Knowledge of policies and procedures along with supervision skills, effective hiring and firing techniques are additional examples (See Figure 1 on page 35).

Since hard skills are the most visual of leadership skills and the skills most easily taught and evaluated, they are often overemphasized within outdoor leadership training programs. Consider the brochures of the more popular outdoor training agencies. In these class schedules we see students actively participating in the acquisition of hard skills. Rappelling off 100 foot rock walls makes and sells adventure. These hard skills (technical) activities are marketing tools used to see and feel excitement. In most cases we do an excellent job of teaching hard skills. But it is felt that a number of our leadership training programs and our outdoor profession as a whole falls short in the development and teaching of interpersonal and human relations skills (soft skills) along with problem solving, decision making, judgement, and other critical thinking competencies (conceptual skills).

Soft Skills

Soft skills are defined as interpersonal and human relations skills; in other words "people skills". Soft skills, like hard skills, may also be divided into components. The three components of soft skills include: social, psychological and communication.

Social. The social component of soft skills incorporates the group interaction and welfare of the outdoor program participants. The social component may include the understanding of group dynamics, the ability to resolve group conflict, develop and provide a supportive climate (reassurance and encouragement), being sensitive to the needs of others and establishing effective group relations.

Psychological. The psychological component combines the skills necessary in relating to the participant's presence of mind and behavior. Some examples of the psychological component include building a climate of trust within a group, understanding what motivation is, and how to stimulate it. Other examples may include promoting values, understanding attitudes of others, team building, developing ethics and responding to a person's risks in a trustworthy manner.

Communication. The communication component combines written, verbal, and non-verbal transmission and exchange of information. Examples of this component range from being able to "think on your feet" and speak clearly in front of a group, to interpreting non-verbal expressions (hunching of the shoulders, furrowed brow, pursed lips). Other examples may include expressing directions in written format or listening attentively (See Figure 2 on page 36).

Soft skills are difficult to teach and difficult to measure since many components of soft skills are intangible. Hence, few

leadership training programs include these components in their training of outdoor leaders or camp counselors. Yet these soft skills competencies are vital to become an effective leader in the outdoor field.

Research in the past few years has indicated to our profession the importance of outdoor leadership competencies, which include both hard and soft skill acquisition (Green, 1981; Buell, 1981; Swiderski, 1981). The research findings have also indicated the importance of judgement, decision making, problem solving and other conceptual skills (Priest, 1987; Phipps, 1986; Swiderski, 1981).

Conceptual Skills

The following three scenarios exercise a leader's conceptual skills. While traveling on nordic skis the group stopped at the edge of a large frozen lake. The question was asked, "Do we ski across, or go around?" In another scenario, the leader knelt next to the injured student and consulted with the assistant leaders, "Should we carry him out now in the dark or should we risk spending the night with him here?" In yet another situation, the team was struggling back to the trail head, through the early evening snow. The area to the right had been cleared clean of all trees. Knowing that the valley was subject to avalanche should the group continue down the valley and risk passing under the avalanche path or change their direction of travel? Obviously, the decision on what action to take will depend on individual circumstances. But these common scenarios illustrate the process of logical thinking and judgement. Conceptual skills need to be explored and developed by outdoor leaders and camp counselors.

Conceptual skills are the general analytic skills of a leader; the reasoning power and logical cogitative processes. There are two components within conceptual skills: judgement and creativity.

Judgement. Judgement has been shown to be the number one outdoor leadership competency deemed necessary by outdoor leaders (Swiderski, 1981). Judgement is the process of forming an opinion by discerning and comparing using one or more of the following: cognitive instinct, logical deduction, foresight, perception and assessment. Judgement is the ability to understand, compare and decide between alternative forces (Rogers, 1979, p.3). Some examples of the judgement component may include distinguishing between perceived risk and actual risk, recognizing potential problems in such areas as natural hazards, environmental impact, or group problems (dissension, low group morale). Judgement may also include the ability to perceive potential danger, to analyze alternatives clearly, to anticipate the unexpected and to problem solve. The acquisition of judgement allows one to lead a group while mentally being one or two steps ahead of the present situation. Being able to anticipate potential problems and solving them before they occur is not easy to incorporate into a leadership training program. Few outdoor leadership training programs are yet capable of analyzing and teaching judgement proficiencies.

Creativity. The outer limits of conceptual skill development includes the creativity component. Creative abilities are like the oil wells of our mind. We know there is a lot down inside our brain but getting it to the surface and transforming it into something useful is the problem (LeBoeuf, 1980, p.10). In our outdoor training, we are often blindfolded by tradition, unable to see beyond the present training methods. To exercise creativity within outdoor leadership incorporates generating new ideas such as original teaching methods/techniques or inventing instructional teaching aids. Also being able to perceive trends or to direct the imagination to open the door for new outdoor positions are examples of the creative component within the conceptual skill development. Creative visualizing under physical stress and self imposed pressure while recognizing potential opportunities for that "teachable moment" are also difficult to blend into outdoor

leadership training programs. "Newer and better ways can always be found. Rigid, inflexible thinking is a great killer of creative ability" (LeBoeuf, 1980, p.22) (See Figure 3 on page 36).

The acquisition of skill in an activity, such as kayaking, and the actual leadership of groups in that activity are two separate and distinct abilities. "Having one does not make the person an expert in the other" (Rogers, 1979, p.8).

In the past, great emphasis has been justifiably placed on the importance of the proper acquisition of hard skills for teaching and instruction of groups. The wrong assumption has been made, by many in our profession, that this hard skills training makes one a leader (Rogers, 1979, p.8). The acquisition of hard skills is just one part of the leadership development process. The acquisition of soft skills (social, psychological and communication components) is the second part of the leadership development process. The integration of conceptual skills (judgement and creativity component) is the third part of the leadership development process. It is the process of learning these three skill areas that needs to be blended within our current leadership training program. A handful of agencies are already recognizing this need and are attempting to integrate these soft skills and conceptual skills into their training programs. But as a whole, our profession has not yet fully developed this integration of soft and conceptual training skills into our outdoor and camp leadership programs.

There is a plethora of references in our field relating to the development of hard skills. Text books, outdoor manuals, journal and related literature are abundant. However, because of the relative newness of our field (when compared to other professions) and the recent gradual awareness of our need to develop the interpersonal skills and the judgement skills of leaders, few outdoor literature references relate to soft and conceptual in outdoor recreation/education. We can draw from other professional resources to assist us in developing the soft and conceptual skill areas in our outdoor profession.

Soft and Conceptual Skill References

To expedite the integration of soft skills and conceptual skills with the already existing hard skills training programs, we need to go outside our circle of outdoor leadership. Instead of reinventing the wheel to meet our professional needs, we should borrow from those professions which are adept in soft and conceptual skills. A selected list of professions include the fields of education, psychology, philosophy, counseling, sociology, speech communication, military sciences and business management. By tapping into these across campus interdisciplinary resources, their literature and textual references, we can expand our awareness of soft and conceptual skills components and integrate them into our current leadership training curriculums.

The fact remains that, if soft and conceptual skills are as important to us as the research has shown, we should integrate them into future outdoor and camp leadership development curriculums. Their subjective nature makes them difficult to teach and evaluate. It will be a long process. The long process involves committment to professional development. It involves a committment to experience and continued learning. But as the soft and conceptual skills become an integral part of outdoor leadership training curriculums, our young gentleman's confusion between "software" and soft skills will no longer exist.

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Figure 1

Outdoor Hard Skills Components

Components	Examples
Physiological	• physiological understanding of the human body (Buell, 1981, p.105) • administration of first and second aid • hypothermia recognition and treatment • maintaining physical fitness, agility, coordination, endurance and strength (Priest, 1987, p.4) • promoting health • treating common backcountry ailments
Environmental	• practicing personal and group sanitation (Buell, 1981, p. 103) and solid waste disposal Swiderski, 1981, p.108) • interpreting weather systems (Rogers, 1979, p.15) • promoting environmental ethics (Swiderski, 1981, p. 107) • understanding ecological principles • knowing natural history of the area • preventing negative damage to the natural surroundings or environment (Priest, 1987, p.5)
Safety	• preventing accidents through awareness of hazards • practicing group security (Rogers, 1979, p.16) • search and rescue competencies (Buell, 1981, p.106) • treating water for drinking (Swiderski, 1981, p.108) • implementing risk management techniques (Green, 1981, p.56) • developing a critical eye for safety • checking the safety of all equipment prior to use (Buell, 1981, p.103) • demonstrating safety driving procedures (Swiderski, 1981, p.109)
Technical	• active participant in the outdoor pursuits being led (Priest, 1987, p.5) • maintenance of equipment and facilities (Buell, 1981, p.106) • teaching activities using the recommended teaching progression • rock/caving/ice competencies: rope handling, coiling tossing, knot tying, belaying, rappelling, setting achors, climbing signals, protection placement, etc. • water skills: lifesaving, water rescue procedures, river crossing, canoeing, rafting and kayaking techniques, sailing, windsurfing, etc. • snow based skills: ice axe and crampon techniques, snowshelter construction, nordic and alpine skiing techniques, glissading, snowshoeing, etc. • land based competencies: off-trail navigation, route finding, triangulation, calculation of speed over varied terrain, bike touring, backpacking, mountaineering, hiking, mountain bike, etc.
Administration	• establishing program goals and objectives • carrying out appropriate staff pre-planning (Green, 1981, p.57) • implementing risk management plan (Buell, 1981, p. 106) • understanding legal liability (Rogers, 1979, p.19) • developing outing logistics (Buell, 1981, p.102) • organizing and conducting functional meetings • supervision and evaulation skills • collecting and reporting accident informaiton (Buell, 1981, p.102) • demonstrating compliance with land management regulations (Swiderski, 1981, p.108) • developing and implementing sound written safety procedures (Buell, 1981, p.104) • proficiency in organizational skills (Swiderski, 1981, p.108)

Figure 2

Outdoor Soft Skills Components

Components	Examples
Social	• keeping group dynamics intact (Priest, 1987, p.5) • resolving conflict (Priest, 1987), p.105) • developing and providing support group climate • sensitive to needs of others; clearly knowing how other people feel under given conditions (Priest, 1987, p.4) • establishing effective group relations • remembering names • providing opportunity for personal growth (Priest, 1987, p.23)
Psychological	• building climate of trust (Priest, 1987, p.105) • understanding and stimulating motivation • managing psychological stress (Buell, 1981, p.105) • promoting values • understanding attitudes • attuned to healthy self-concept and ego (Priest, 1987, p.4) • team building • assessing mental and emotional strengths of individuals and groups (Swiderski, 1981, p.108) • developing environmental ethics • respecting the difference between counseling and therapy (Buell, 1981, p.4
Communication	• thinking on your feet • speaking in front of groups (speech fluency) • interpreting non verbal communicaiton • listening and responding while conducting effective debriefing sessions • being persuasive • transferring information (teaching)

Figure 3

Outdoor Conceptual Skills Components

Components	Examples
Judgment	• recognizing potential problems (Swiderski, 1981, p.107) • perceiving potential danger (Priest, 1987, p.4) • analyzing alternatives • anticipating the unexpected • overcoming challenges by analytical or creative problem solving methods (Priest, 1987, p.5)
Creativity	• generating new ideas; foresee and visualize the non-existent (LeBoeuf, 1980, p.9) • perceive trends • improvising equipment, shelter and repairs in an emergency (Swiderski, 1981, p. 108)

CERTIFICATION: Always An Issue, But No Longer A Trend!

Simon Priest

Certification of outdoor leaders has been the subject of debate for many years and in many countries. Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and the U.S.A. have all considered and to some extent, implemented various elements of certification programs. Both pros and cons of certification have been studied and debated among professionals for many years. Currently, alternatives to the certification of individual outdoor leaders is under study. Program certification, peer review processes, and certification of only specific program components (hard skill competencies) are being considered by a number of service providers as well as by national organizations.

KEY WORDS: Certification, Outdoor Leadership, Competencies, Safety, Technical Skills

Since the dawn of outdoor leadership preparation programs in the United States of America, certification has **been an issue.** However, in the United Kingdom, in New Zealand, and in parts of Australia and Canada, certification is **no longer a trend.** Schemes in these countries are opting for doing away with formal certification as part of their outdoor leadership preparation programs. Yet this is not yet the case in the United States. Why? This article attempts to answer this question by drawing on relevant literature, current research, and recent interviews with the people responsible for the creation and administration of outdoor leadership preparation programs in these nations. It traces the history of certification in these nations, and provides some suggested **alternatives.**

Great Britain

Great Britain was the first nation to institute a formal training program for outdoor leaders. Early in 1961, an initial meeting, chaired by Lord Hunt of Mount Everest fame, saw the formation of the Mountain Leadership Training Board with the mandate to certify mountain leaders (Parker & Meldrum, 1973). The Mountain Leadership Certificate "covers training in the basic skills required to take a party on walking and camping expeditions in mountainous areas of the United King-

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dom under normal summer conditions. It is intended as an essential requirement for teachers, youth leaders, and other adults wishing to take young people to the mountains and to show them how to enjoy their mountain walking with safety" (p.63, Langmuir, 1969).

As a direct result of the 1971 "Cairngorms Disaster", where several school children died of hypothermia in the mountainous Cairngorms region of Scotland, the Hunt Committee on Mountain Training (again chaired by Lord Hunt) was formed to take a close look at the Certification Scheme (Ford and Blanchard, 1985). Published in 1975, the Hunt Report raised some critical points. First, the committee stated "we have serious reservations about the value of the conferring (sic) certificates on large numbers of adults who are not professionally engaged in mountain training... ...Furthermore, certification in any spheres carries its own limitations, in that it tends to prescribe in a rigid manner the content of a course of training, making it more difficult to provide imaginatively for varying needs" (BMC, 1975). Second, the certificate was seen by the committee as having an overinflated value, given that it merely meets a minimum standard in a field where the maximum might be more appropriate. Third, the granting of a certificate appeared to attract people, who otherwise might not have an interest in mountain activities. Fourth, requirement of the certificate by many agencies, prevented the involvement of leaders who lacked the certificate, but who had greater competence than required by such a certificate. Fifth, local educational authorities and other groups had used possession of a certificate as an inappropriate guarantee of the leader's ability (BMC, 1975).

The Hunt Committee made three major recommendations. The first was that training programs should continue, but that the approach should be more varied in content, more flexible in nature, and more responsive to individual needs. The second applied to certification. They recommended the abolition of certificates, and the institution of a reporting method giving the conditions under which assessment took place. Essentially this meant assessors would suggest further training for candidates based on their strengths and weaknesses. The third gave thoughts on renaming the Mountain Leadership Certification Scheme (BMC, 1975).

A year later, the Hunt reforms were adopted, and the British Mountain Leadership Training Board now offers a **qualification** rather than a **certification** in outdoor leadership. Today, the scheme **no longer certifies leaders!** Instead, it provides "the opportunity to gain minimum technical competence for leading parties in the hills. It does not provide a professional mountaineering or instructing qualification, nor a professional qualification... ...The completion of a training course alone is in no way a qualification in itself." (p.360, Langmuir, 1984).

Rather than certify the individual to be a leader, the program places the responsibility on the candidates as well as on the agency which may hire them. The Mountain Leadership Training Board clearly states that "it is the responsibility of the employee or organizer (sic) to decide whether a leader possesses the personal attributes needed for leadership." (p. 361, Langmuir, 1984). Furthermore, they state that in non-mountainous terrain, the qualification should not be a requirement, and that there may be plenty of competent outdoor leaders who are known to possess the necessary qualities of leadership, but have not obtained the qualification. In no way should the existence of a qualification **absolve employers from their responsibility of evaluating** the potential outdoor leader.

Australia

Two programs of merit exist in Australia: one in the state of Victoria, and the other in the state of Tasmania (Ford and Blanchard, 1985). The Australian outdoor

leadership movement began in May of 1969 when the Victorian Bushwalking and Mountaincraft Advisory Board (VBMAB), offered the first course based closely upon the British Mountain Leadership Certificate Scheme. Over the years, adaptations of British training materials were made to suit locally specific conditions (Lingard, 1984).

Applicants to the Bush and Mountain Walking Leadership Training Board of Tasmania (BMWLTBT) must be experienced in bush and mountain travel before they will even be considered as a candidate. The result is a leadership candidate group of advanced technical skill level. This provides an opportunity for the trainers to concentrate on more critical aspects of leadership development. The course also includes an opportunity for candidates to demonstrate teaching ability by presenting a lesson on a required topic to their peer group (BMWLTBT, 1984). The Tasmanian scheme offers a certificate of course completion and not a certificate of competent outdoor leadership. The trend in Tasmania is away from certification of the leader and toward the qualification of having completed the initial training as is current in Britain (Tomalin, 1984).

New Zealand

In 1977, a provisional Outdoor Training Advisory Board (OTAB) was established, and funded for six years, to develop an outdoor leadership preparation scheme in New Zealand (Ford and Blanchard, 1985). A close look at the Hunt Report, recently published in Britain, and the adaptations of Australia, gave the board a direction for development (Abbott, 1984).

The Board decided on several key points for their preparation program. First, the scheme would be open-ended and not present a certificate to imply the end of training. Second, the scheme would be flexible enough to respond to varying training needs of participants. Third, training would be offered at several levels. Fourth, a modular approach would enable people from a wide variety of outdoor activities to benefit from the training. Fifth, the scheme would be open to input from the many agencies involved in outdoor recreation in New Zealand and thus allow for an interchange of ideas. Sixth, the responsibility for assessment would lie with the participant and not with a panel of experts (Abbott, 1981).

The aims of the board were simple: develop a framework for coordinated leader training, advise existing programs, and act as an information clearing house (Toynbee, 1982). The unique aspect about this board was its role as an advisory agency. It did not offer an outdoor leadership program of its own, rather, it assisted other agencies and outdoor associations with their own training programs. As an advisory board, the mandate for action was oriented toward securing resource personnel for courses, toward avoiding duplication of training courses, and toward making recommendations on standards and course offerings (Trist, 1984).

Canada

Nova Scotia, one eastern province of Canada, operates a scheme based partly on the British Scheme and partly on some of the New Zealand adaptations. Two other provinces, British Columbia and Ontario are considering their own programs and are looking to the Nova Scotia scheme for direction. Patterned after the advisory board in New Zealand, the Nova Scotia Outdoor Leadership Development Program (NSOLDP) consists of an information clearing house, a service program providing instructional resources, and an open-ended course in outdoor leadership training. Upon completion, a certificate is not granted, but rather graduates are encouraged to continue their development as outdoor leaders (Ford and Blanchard, 1985).

The province of British Columbia has been investigating outdoor leadership preparation since 1978. In May of 1981, the Federation of Mountain Clubs of Brit-

ish Columbia (FMCBC), a representative body of 31 outdoor clubs and organizations, issued a press release stating their opposition to mandatory leadership certification (FMCBC, 1981). A survey of outdoor leadership development in British Columbia, undertaken by the Outdoor Recreation Council of British Columbia confirmed this belief, with only 16% of the 138 respondents preferring an outdoor leadership certification scheme (Todd, 1983).

The Council of Outdoor Educators of Ontario (COEO) has wrestled with the issue of certification since 1970. A task force on certification of outdoor leaders recommended avoidance of developing their own certification program (COEO, 1977). In a COEO commissioned work entitled Leading to Share, Sharing to Lead, Rogers proposes an outdoor leadership development model with certification of technical skills as a parallel corequisite to leadership development. The scheme itself is noncertifying and consists of three stages very similar to the British and Australian schemes (Rogers, 1979).

United States of America

Two programs in the United States do certify leaders (Ford and Blanchard, 1985). The National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS) was originally founded by Paul Petzoldt in 1965. For over twenty years, the center has operated an outdoor leadership certification program. The mandate of NOLS was "to train leaders capable of conducting all-round wilderness programs in a safe and rewarding manner" (Petzoldt, 1974). To this end the school grants certification of outdoor leadership at three levels: outdoor educator, leader, and instructor (NOLS, 1984).

In 1978, Petzoldt left the National Outdoor Leadership Schools to create the Wilderness Education Association (WEA) in Idaho. The association administers the National Standard Program for Outdoor Leadership Certification within the existing context of many higher education degree programs. The association states that certified outdoor leaders "are able to teach others to use and enjoy the wilderness with minimum impact; safely lead others in the wild outdoor; exercise good judgement in a variety of outdoor environments and conditions; and demonstrate a basic standard of outdoor knowledge and experience" (Cockrell and LaFollette, 1985).

Both programs presently certify outdoor leaders and have similar curricula. About NOLS, Petzoldt has said "We can certify an outdoor leader and know this person is likely to lead a group properly and use a certain amount of good judgement. But it is difficult to make any assurances" (Petzoldt, 1975). WEA states that their certification "allows potential employers, parents of youth taking trips into the wilds, insurance companies, wild lands administrators, or others interested in the protection of wilderness users and areas, to know that these certified outdoor leaders have been trained in decision making, safety and conservation" (WEA pamphlet, 1984).

Summary

The influence of the "original" British Mountain Leadership Certificate Scheme has spread among Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States of America. The programs of Great Britain have been formally training outdoor leaders since 1961. Recent reforms resulting from the Hunt Report have altered the format of the program. Begun originally as a certification scheme, the program operated by the Mountain Leadership Training Board is now a qualification scheme for aspiring leaders. Today, the program no longer certifies outdoor leaders.

Australia was the first to adapt the British programs, adding the concept of initial appraisal session and advisory panels for training and assessment. Looking to Australia and the changes in Britain, New Zealand developed a non-certifying advisory role. Based on observations from the successful New Zealand Scheme, Ca-

nadian programs in British Columbia, Ontario and Nova Scotia appear to be moving away from certification. However, notable programs in the United States still certify outdoor leaders even though no nationally recognized program, without certification, has yet to arise in the U.S.A. Why is this nation different from others? In answering this question the reader should consider both the pros and cons of the certification issue and some of the possible alternatives.

The Certification Debate in America

The issue of certification is beginning to receive much attention in the United States of America. A special issue of Camping Magazine (Job and Yerkes, 1985) was entirely devoted to the topic, however, authors' viewpoints were divided on the question of certification. A recent "Think Tank" organized for discussing issues related to adventure activities, found its panel of experts agreeing on the need for outdoor leadership preparation, but, on the topic of certification they too were diametrically opposed (Robb and Hamilton, 1985).

Rollins (1983) was of the opinion that two sides existed to certification. On the positive side, certification protects the consumer and the experience, motivates leaders to higher standards, and provides some support in cases of liability. On the negative side, certification is costly and time consuming, is often only a test of specific skill proficiency, and may duplicate or overlap other preparation efforts. He suggested that programs develop their own standards of outdoor leadership competency and certify their own leaders.

Green (1982), in a chapter on certification, summed up both sides of the issue. On the con side he stated the major objection as an inability to evaluate outdoor leadership competency and sound judgement. On the pro side he synthesized the supporting arguments into three types: protection of the client or consumer, protection of the environment, and lower insurance premiums. Most proponents of certification maintained that a certificate guarantees fully competent leadership; a safe leader at all times. Hunt (1985) summed up this point well, when he stated that a key issue in the certification conflict is "the attempt to conflate being safe with being certified" (p.24).

The crux of the certification debate revolves around the fact that leaders must be able to make sound decisions under extremely stressful conditions. The competence to do this reliably, and the ability to validate this judgement competence, are what trouble those who oppose certification. Swiderski (1985) considered that outdoor leaders make at least fifty important decisions a day and that their decisions are based on subjective criteria like experience, intuition, and attitude. He asked the question: How can these be assessed objectively? "Regardless of how extensive and thorough a certification system may be, it cannot assure nor certify that leader's judgemental capabilities in a short time" (p. 20).

Petzoldt (1974) in his publication the Wilderness handbook mentioned judgement as the all important aspect of outdoor leadership and wrote that "a talent for judgement can be taught" (p. 147). Sound judgement can be learned from exposure to a series of extensive and intensive experiences (Ogilvie, 1974). March (1980) mentioned the "wilderness factor" with high objective hazards and isolation from civilized medical aid, as a key aspect of the judgement issue. He related "that only by personal experience over a long period of time can a person begin to acquire the level of judgement to operate safely in a leadership capacity" (p. 16).

Langmuir (1969) stated that "a decision without the pressure of consequence, is hardly a decision at all" (p. 4) and he pointed to good decision making as both science and art which arise from the experience of surviving past poor decisions. Jackson (1972), a founding member of the British Mountain Leadership Scheme, is

credited with the solid phrase: "Good party leadership depends upon the right person, having the right people, in the right place, at the right time, with the right equipment and the right knowledge" (p. 1). He added that the success of solving problems and making decisions depends upon the outdoor leader's ability to make sound judgements based on knowledge and experience" (p. 1).

Rogers (1979) was careful to point out that outdoor leadership is not a case of certification, but rather is an ongoing process of preparation which takes place over a great deal of time and is never fully completed for the leader who aspires to be truly effective. It is the assessment of the critical outdoor leadership component: objective judgement, which has been a focal point for an intense debate on the topic of certification for outdoor leaders over the past years.

Alternatives to Outdoor Leadership Certification

There are several alternatives to certification of outdoor leaders. The most commonly mentioned one is the certification of programs rather than people. Support for this idea was present in Virginia. Cockrell and Detzel (1985) obtained 70% support for the idea of certifying outdoor adventure organizations rather than individuals. This may yet prove a viable alternative to outdoor leadership certification.

Another alternative is that mentioned by Wade (1983). He suggested the **peer review process**, used by Outward Bound since 1971, as an advantageous mechanism; due to lower costs, expenses born by the agency, and higher standards of excellence sought after. A related alternative is the **preparation of leaders specific to the needs of the program**. Here the point that any certificate issued has limited value outside the program for which preparation took place must be clearly stated.

A survey of the Association for Experiential Education membership showed support for certification of the so-called "hard" competencies, such as technical activity and safety skills. Certification of the "soft" competencies, such as judgement, and group counseling skills, was not favored by respondents (Priest, 1984).

A more recent study by Priest (1987) demonstrated that products and opponents of outdoor leadership certification might actually agree to certify a few **components of outdoor leadership** and not to certify others. An international sample of 169 experts (active in outdoor leadership preparation) responded to a survey which asked them if they would certify fourteen general components essential to an outdoor leader. Statistical majorities were present for certifying technical activity skills and safety skills, but not for several other components. The results showed that those who opposed certification would accept a certificate of technical and safety skills and those who supported certification would not accept a certificate which included all components. Hence a point of compromise appears evident: the certification of technical activity and safety skills, but not such components as judgement. Experts commented that any such certificate if granted should not be called a **leadership** certificate.

Using the statistical tool of a discriminant function analysis, the same study successfully separated the experts by nationality. Some of the items used to achieve a 90% correct rate of prediction were the experts' agreement with a list of thirteen greatest concerns. The items of the function which cleanly separated the North American experts from all other experts, were a high concern for **litigation** and for **rising insurance premiums**. These two concerns, specific only to North America, might explain why some American's still have an interest in certification.

Given the current insurance crisis and a programmatic concern for litigation, perhaps we should seriously consider

certification by components and restrict our guarantees to the more easily measured skills of safety and technique. It is critical that this certificate not be closely associated with the term leadership in any manner. For possession of these two components alone is a far cry from being an effective outdoor leader. A **technical/safety certificate** (and not a leadership certificate) might satisfy the insurance companies. It may also encourage the proponents and opponents of outdoor leadership certification to work together toward achieving our common goals of reducing wilderness accidents, protecting the natural environment, and assuring positive outdoor experiences.

Closing Comment

The United States has past the point of deciding whether or not to **prepare** effective outdoor leaders. The problems of increasing outdoors accidents and environmental damage, along with the associated rise in search and rescue costs, insurance premiums, and resource user regulations, have all combined to make the solution of outdoor leadership both appropriate and necessary. The question now facing the field in this country is whether or not to **certify** those leaders, and, if certified; to what extent?

The concern appears to revolve around beliefs that certificates guarantee or assure competence, and that certificates encompass all the critical components of outdoor leadership. The crux of these concerns is the question; can sound judgement be field evaluated in a valid and reliable manner? If so; can we extrapolate that evaluation into real life stressful situations?

As the field of outdoor adventure education matures in this country it is bound to recapitulate the growth of other nations. Based on past history, outdoor leadership preparation followed by certification is a predictable occurrence. Certification is also an issue which the experts in other nations appear to have already dealt with by refusing to certify their outdoor leaders. The world now looks to the United States to see if we follow suit or perhaps (in answering these many questions) are able to **build a better mousetrap!**

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Adventure Challenge As a Means of Containment

Anthony Richards
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A theory of juvenile delinquency is based on the fact that all young people have the potential to become a delinquent. Non-delinquents score higher on levels of containment than their delinquent counterparts. Containment theory supports that favorable self-concept, goal orientation, frustration tolerance and retention of norms are the key attributes which characterize non-delinquents.

Many adventure based experiential education programs have as a goal the development of attributes suggested in containment theory. It would follow that if it were possible to increase scores on containment scales there would be a chance that delinquency behaviors would be prevented.

Whereas this cause and effect relationship should be considered with caution, it should not be ignored.

KEY WORDS: *Containment Theory, Adventure Based Experiential Learning, Adventure/ Challenge, Delinquency Prevention.*

Introduction

There is a potential for juvenile delinquency among "normal average youth". The idea of primary prevention is cost effective and ethically sound; especially if the program is generated into an existing system and is accessible for all youth. Containment theory, as developed by Reckless (1967), is well suited to be adapted into mainstream programming. Delinquents score much lower on the containment scale than their non-delinquent counterparts. The ingredients of this theory also happen to be addressed in many of the goals of adventure based experiential learning programs. This paper will attempt to investigate the potential of adventure based programs to increase the scores on containment scales and thus reduce the probability for delinquent behavior.

It becomes evident when reviewing the literature that most programs that deal with delinquency are preoccupied with treat-

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ment or therapy. Whereas prevention may seem more appropriate, it has been difficult to create programs and even more difficult to design methods which emperically investigate the concept of prevention. The notion of trying to quantify that which has been prevented is illusive at best. Adventure/challenge programs have indirectly made loose claims about their potential to prevent delinquency. This paper will attempt to make a case for deliberate programming with the goal of primary prevention in mind.

In the past, efforts to correct the presumed causes of delinquency were usually made through group work or individual case work. Psychotherapy and detached gang worker techniques were frequently used (Reckless & Dinitz, 1972; Lundman & Scarpatti, 1978). Few of these efforts enjoyed any measure of success. Reckless and Dinitz (1972) suggest that difficulties in attracting an appropriate population, high costs, and difficulties in identifying non-delinquent activities which were attractive to potential participants as possible explanations. Dinitz and Pfau Vincent (1982) emphasize the difficulty in determining an appropriate intervention strategy. Berleman and Steinburn (1967) point out that most prevention programs have had limited contact with their clientele. As a result it is unclear whether treatment methods have been ineffective or whether they have never really been tried.

Later approaches attempt to head off delinquency by spending money early on prevention (Hurley, 1985). Examples include a treatment program which can reduce a hyperactive child's chances of becoming a delinquent by 50%. Another program of remedial parenting teaches effective ways of monitoring the child's behavior and stresses skills in problem solving, crisis management and negotiating for families of children who exhibit persistent lying, truancy, fighting and vandalism. Preschool programs for shy aggressive boys (a strong predictor of teenage delinquency) have been found to be effective.

> Containment theory is designed to explain those forms of delinquency and criminal behavior that fall outside the highly personalized acts resulting from organic and personality disorders, such as brain damage, on the one hand, and organized criminality, such as organized crime and delinquent gangs on the other hand. (Hirschi, 1969, p.157).

In this sense containment is a residual theory of delinquency explaining what is left over; that is, the type of delinquent activity that the average youth might be involved in. It appears that most youth become involved in delinquency in some form or another. Using self reported measures Leblanc (1983) found that 92.8% of 12 to 18 year olds admitted to committing an infraction at least once in the last twelve months. These Canadian results are similar to those of other western countries. There are delinquent youth from apparently ideal circumstances and non-delinquent youth from most unfavorable circumstances.

Containment theory offers one explanation for this selective resistance to deviance. This theory considers that everyone could be delinquent. Reckless (1967) suggests that the determining factor is the extent the individual is prohibited by Self, or *inner containment*, which is the ability of the person to follow expected norms through self control and consists of four components: a favorable self-concept, goal orientation, frustration tolerance and retention of norms; and *outer containment*, which is the ability of society to confine behavior of individuals within acceptable ranges of norms and expectations and consists of three aspects: internalization of rules, availability of meaningful roles, and group reinforcement.

Outer containment is very evident in isolated tribal communities or in strong religious communities. However, in current North American society there is a lack of containment especially for youth. There

are no well defined limits of behavior and no definite roles to play. The absence of definite limits and roles not only generates self-aggrandizement, but also generates a low frustration tolerance, which means that individuals are unable to handle limitations, interferences, and prohibitions. They become progressively unable to take no for an answer and to withstand adversities (Reckless, 1967). Of the two categories, inner containment is considered to be the most potent. Any controlling effect the social environment may have on behavior must always be filtered through the individual's reception/reaction system (Hogan & Mookherjee, 1981). Inner controls seem to have more predictive weight than outer controls (Reiss, 1981) and the more inner control is established the less outer control is needed (Thompson & Dodder, 1983).

Kimball (1986), has used the concept of developing inner control in most of the programs conducted at the Santa Fe Mountain center. The delinquents are taken out of an environment which denies responsibility and creative behavior. They are then placed in a simple wilderness environment where they are required to take responsibility and make decisions about their own (and others) well-being. When a young person can break free from relying on external factors to solve problems by the application of personal resources, then there is a shift from outer control (Glenn & Warner, 1985).

Control theories, of which containment theory is representative, have enjoyed more empirical support than other explanations of youthful deviance (Hirschi, 1969). They consist of factors that are measurable and based on logical properties (Shoemaker, 1984). The most studied of these properties has been self concept. Despite difficulties in clearly defining and verifying self concept Dinitz and Pfau Vincent (1982) conclude:

> Certainly self theory and its attendant research has offered sufficient support for the importance of self concept in the etiology of juvenile delinquency to encourage major attempts to intervene in the development or enhancement of positive self concept in delinquency prone youth. (p.152).

Self-concept is not the only variable addressed by containment theory which has empirical support. Long (1976) suggests her results revealed strong support for certain components of containment, especially frustration tolerance. Lawrence (1985) found support in containment that delinquents showed higher scores on factors which revealed the delinquent as self-sufficient, individualistic, non-social, excitable, impatient, and unrestrained, compared with non-delinquent subjects who were found to be group oriented, valuing social approval, conventional and more patient and restrained. These act as containment against delinquency.

Whereas there have been numerous studies which attempt to link adventure experiences with self-concept, programs do not deliberately set out to deal with low self-concept and create treatments and adventure activities to increase the self-concept levels. A recent study by Ewert (1986) pointed out that most program evaluations have demonstrated increases in such measures as self-concept, enhancement of personal growth and self-actualization. At the same time it has not been shown which specific ingredients in the program have caused these changes. The cause and effect dilemma is problematic. The time has come to create adventure programs which are outcome oriented and not activity centered.

The advantage of considering a theory such as containment is that programs can be designed specifically to address the areas that need to be improved. Specific adventure/challenge activities can provide clear and straightforward means for improving performance on inner containment scales. These include a favorable self-concept, goal orientation, frustration tolerance and retention of norms. The most

efficient and impactful way of achieving these is by adopting an adventure based experiential learning approach.

Adventure/Challenge programs have their underpinnings in experiential education although one does not necessarily include the other. Laura Joplin (1981) suggests a 5 stage model. She describes a hurricane-like cycle of focus-action-debrief with feedback and support throughout the cycle. She further points out that experiential programs have two responsibilities for their program designs; to provide an experience and to facilitate the reflection on that experience. This is called the "action reflection cycle". Conrad and Hedin (1981) in their study of school based programs define experiential education as,

> ...educational programs offered as an integral part of the general school curriculum but taking place outside the conventional classroom, where students are in new roles featuring significant tasks with real consequences, and where the emphasis is on learning by doing with associated reflection. (p. 191).

The Outward Bound movement which is the most wide-spread and oldest organization using an adventure based format has contributed much to the meaning of adventure programs.

> Outward Bound gets people to leave their safe moorings of home, family, friends, and daily routine to cope with the unfamiliar, the uncomfortable, the difficult and the adventurous, in search of an opportunity to understand, test and demonstrate their own resources; to leave self-imposed limitations behind and discover endless possibilities. (Causey, Nerris, & Nesin, 1985, p.90).

Some of the original goals of Outward Bound which were envisaged by Kurt Hahn in 1941 include stamina and staying power; participation in the community at large, both as a learner and leader; a sense of fellowship and interdependence; and understandable and manageable challenge. All of these were designed to quench the youth's thirst for adventure (Richards, 1981). These goals have persisted in various forms through the 1980's and exist beyond Outward Bound. They form the basis of many adventure based experiential learning programs.

In addition to Outward Bound many other organizations have undertaken the use of adventure based program as a therapeutic medium. The Association for Experiential Education directory (1985) lists some 107 adventure alternatives in corrections, mental health, special education and physical education.

Conrad and Hedin (1981) conducted a broad ranging assessment of experiential programs within the U.S. One focus of the study was an attempt to determine which program features were most effective in facilitating development in students. Seminars conducted on a regular basis were deemed to be most important. Of somewhat less influence was program length and intensity. This counters the claims of many adventure challenge programs which are often very intensive, one-shot events.

Although there were no discernible relationships between student growth and program type, neither was there any pure program types as most programs were a combination of a variety of approaches. Further, the authors admit to a shortage of adventure/challenge type programs in their sample. Interesting to note is that the most consistent pre and post test gains in self-esteem were registered by students in the outdoor challenge programs.

There has been considerable research done to support the effects of adventure based programs such as Outward Bound on self-esteem (Shore, 1977) and that the effects were persistent over time (Nye, 1975; Heaps & Thorstenson, 1977). However, the degree of retention of high self-esteem scores following adventure/challenge programs remains suspect. Most studies confine themselves to a pre-test/post-test format. The increase in self-es-

teem, self-concept and self-efficacy as a result of any intense residential experience is considerable (Alexander, 1969; Chenery, 1981; Stone, 1986). Those follow-up studies which have attempted post post-tests have demonstrated varying levels of drop off in the scores. In one case the subjects regressed to below the pre-test mean (Richards, 1982). Generally there has been some residual increase over the pre-test levels.

Frequently, greater positive changes were found if participants were originally low in self-esteem (Clifford & Clifford, 1967) than if they had high positive self-concepts at the outset of the programs (Chesnutt, 1980). A few researchers discovered negative effects of Outward Bound (Barter, 1977), although participant observers Katz and Klob (1977) suggest that students with psychological fears may be adversely affected. The meaning of the programs for participants goes beyond the power of the activities. Conrad and Hedin (1981) speculate that students can make personal meaning of their experiences on their own but if this meaning is to affect their broader social attitudes and intellectual skills systematic and directed reflection must be added. It may be the components of novel environment, the uncertainty of outcome, risk and adventure, and the outdoors that are the aspects of the program which make the most impact on self-esteem. However, long term gains can only occur if the seminar, reflection, and processing components are used to help the participant make the connections to the broader life situations. It is the combination of action/reflection which makes the program effective. In fact, the balance between product and process is a recurring theme in much of current thought on adventure based experiential programs. The over-riding theme suggests that the activities are secondary to the meaning which can be drawn from them.

> To realize his better self everyone must pass in youth through some test of adventure and hardship and the adventure must be real; a conflict with the natural environment and yet it must be adjustable, so as not to overtax adolescence. The forces of nature alone provide these natural adventures and test personality: the winds, the roughened surface of the sea, and the rough hill surface of the land. (Geoffrey Winthrop Young, June 26, 1943 at the Christening of the Garbaldi, Outward Bound Sea School - Aberdovey.) (Hogan, 1968).

Adventure activities have gone from being the domain of a few on the fringe to becoming a major North American pastime. Because adventure is so popular it can act as an important drawing card for a therapeutic program. If such a program is to be successful it must be freely accepted by potential clients (Jellison & Riskind, 1970). If taking risks is more valued than not taking risks then an adventure based program may be attractive to potential participants. Success in such programs may have more potential self-enhancement than non-adventurous programs (Bandura, 1977). Youth may be especially appropriate for such a program as they are in the learning period of human development, that period which is most conducive to risk taking (Mahle, 1980).

Kelly and Baer (1968) found the action oriented Outward Bound programs which rated high in excitement and challenge were correlated with lower recidivism rates in delinquent participants. Richards (1979) speculates that there would be a significant difference in the reduction of delinquent behavior as a result of providing activities for young people which promote the development of perception of reality, problem solving and willingness to experiment with the environment. Where Alexander (1976) claims this could happen through free play, Richards (1979) suggests that the opportunity for these free play activities diminish with age and that adventure activities are the most appropriate replacement in the case of youth.

In considering an adventure based experiential learning program aimed at enhancing containment, a number of key and essential ingredients must be considered.

1) There must be an assessment of the individual's appropriateness for the program. Kelly and Baer (1968) tell us that it may be that Outward Bound has a greater influence on those delinquents who are committed for the first time than for those who had prior periods of institutionalization. It would be better, perhaps, from the social perspective, to intervene before a youth reaches the point of first commitment. The importance of remaining in a pro-social group has been stressed by Elliot (1985). Reckless and Dinitz (1972) eliminated low IQ's (below 70) and severe emotional and physical handicaps from their sample. None of these groups need be excluded from the potential of such a program but they would require special considerations. Conrad and Hedin (1981) found that the more mature older teens were better able to relate their experience to the general life situation, but Reckless and Dinitz (1972) make a good point for reaching youth at the threshold age of delinquency (13 years). In any case, it seems that "normal" youth (12-17 years of age) at risk due to physical and social circumstances would be appropriate candidates.

2) There must be a willingness and committment to participate in the program. This is essential for both participants and staff. It can be generated by interesting activities (Conrad & Hedin, 1981) and through the development of a program culture such as that which is found in Outward Bound wherein participants feel that they are in a special place for special work (Katz & Klob, 1977). Further, the element of risk or adventure can play an important role in willingness towards the program because of its popularity. This is evident in the number of adventure based experiential learning programs and the increased coverage they receive in popular literature. Also the cultural and sub-cultural value and the peer acceptance makes it attractive to youth (Jellison & Riskind, 1970).

3) There should be opportunities to confront frustration successfully and to learn to work as a group to solve common problems must be provided.

> There are few influences on our behavior more powerful than the support and approval of a group of friends. Using the group influence to facilitate our learning is one of the most constructive ways of insuring the development of our inter-personal skills (Johnson, 1972, p.7).

There must be an awareness that the design of effective learning experiences requires extensive structure, but must appear to be spontaneous and promote self-development and personal responsibility. People do not necessarily learn from experience if they do not think about it, or fail to accept any responsibility for its creation.

4) The participants must be engaged in activity that is both concrete and physical. This is especially important with the suggested population. As Katz and Klob (1977) reported, delinquents respond well to physical adventure. The object of this kind of action is to bring about self-confrontation (Maslow, 1968) and this must be followed by a process of linking the concrete to the abstract, which enables the participant to generalize.

5) Finally, it is necessary to carry out an evaluation of the participant's performance in the program and an evaluation of how well the program met it's objectives of enhancing some or all of: goal orientation, frustration tolerance, retention of norms and self-esteem.

Because of the large population which can be referred to as "youth at risk" it is not possible to expect all to attend residential Outward Bound type programs. It is prohibitive because of cost, time and disposition. However, there are strategies which can be devised which will help to mainstream the activities as well as make them more accessible. Some suggestions follow:

A) By devising programs which do not require the massive wilderness experiences of Outward Bound Schools. It is not the magnitude of the experience but the intensity of the realization which is important.

B) By devising programs which could be plugged into the existing infrastructure of organizations. Some of which come to mind are the Big Brothers and Big Sisters wherein the relationship of significant other could be enhanced as could the youth's sense of self-worth.

C) By developing programs which can have the desired long term effect through short intensive components, held at regular intervals over the long term. Eighteen weeks were found to be effective by Conrad and Hedin (1981).

D) By developing a leadership component to programs so that participants could be future leaders and assistants. In addition, by tapping existing sources of volunteer leadership, both youth and adult, it is possible to deliver more programs.

All of these suggestions may help to make what appears to be a powerful learning tool accessible to those who need some direction now. When Kurt Hahn first introduced the Moray Badge program, which eventually spawned Outward Bound, one of the objectives was to make it available to as many youths as possible. Perhaps this can still be the case. The only real opportunity to prevent delinquency lies within each individual youth. If we can empower them with the tools to achieve inner control then they themselves can avoid the pitfalls. A non-residential, group oriented, adventure based, experiential learning program aimed at encouraging pro-social behavior may well be an effective intervention strategy and an appropriate use of the containment theory.

Summary

Since *Containment theory* supports the fact that all youth have the potential to become delinquent, the essential aspect of any juvenile delinquency program is that it is accessible to all youth. Unfortunately, the most conventional adventure challenge programs are not always freely accessible because of limited time, facilities and resources. If the essential ingredients of containment theory are taken and the most appropriate adventure activities which address these ingredients are selected, then a program can be created which will directly increase the performance on measures of containment. To make the program freely accessible it is necessary to integrate it into other mainstream institutions. In addition the length of the program should be such that it extends over several months and involves a variety of short interventions. In this way the young person is able to consolidate the newly learned behaviors in the real context of home and community. The containment level of non-delinquents is much higher than those of their delinquent counterparts. Therefore it should be possible to consider that any program that contributes to higher levels of containment may also contribute to delinquency prevention. This cause and effect relationship should be considered with caution but should not be ignored.

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Toward Fullest Participation — Suggested Leadership Techniques for Integrated Adventure Programming

Greg Lais

Perhaps the greatest skill any adventure leader can develop is the ability to accurately assess a group's capabilities and needs, and apply a delicate mix of situations that simultaneously challenges that group's capabilities and satisfies their needs. In the process of challenging and satisfying, leaders are constantly balancing factors such as terrain, ability levels, expectations, safety, group morale and numerous others to provide rewarding experiences that safely integrate people with widely differing needs and expectations.

When group participants have varying levels of physical or cognitive ability, such as blindness, mental retardation, deafness, or mobility impairments, the number of variables and the level of skill required to assess and manipulate those variables are greatly increased.

Although it is by no means exhaustive, this paper provides a framework for adventure program staff in developing and using certain techniques toward the goal of integrating people with widely varying physical, cognitive, and emotional needs. Most of the content is based upon the experiences and methods employed by Wilderness Inquiry II, a non-profit, Minneapolis based program that has conducted hundreds of integrated wilderness canoe and dogsled adventures throughout North America since it was founded in 1978.

KEY WORDS: *Mixed Ability, Condescension, Adventure Programming, Integration.*

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When involved in activities with people who are unfamiliar with each other, or those who are perceived as having different peer status, such as able-bodied/handicapped, many program participants will look toward the leaders for an indication of how they should interact with each other. Skilled adventure leaders quickly make use of the phenomena of role modeling to provide behavioral examples that establish social patterns that are conducive to integration.

A supportive atmosphere of trust, cooperation, and mutual respect is the ideal atmosphere for integrating mixed ability groups. Establishing this atmosphere does not happen by accident, leaders must make a conscious effort to initiate it immediately upon the group's first encounter — or sooner through written pre-trip information.

To be effective, each individual leader must develop their own personal style for promoting an integrative atmosphere, but there are techniques that can be used to reduce or eliminate negative influences, while reinforcing beneficial ones. The seven suggestions described below are designed to help leaders of mixed ability groups further the message of attitudinal as well as physical integration.

Respect Each Person's Dignity

This seemingly obvious suggestion is the foundation to successful integration. Once group members know they will be respected for who they are, they usually will participate more readily in attaining group goals and objectives.

In mixed ability groups, the process of developing mutual respect is complicated by the increased unfamiliarity of different physical and social needs and expectations. When the added variables of a physical, cognitive or emotional impairment are added to the group mix, it is easy to make incorrect assumptions about what people actually need in given situations.

Respecting dignity begins with avoiding any personal gestures that suggest condescending attitudes. Too many well-meaning but unthinking people develop a patronizing or condescending attitude toward those who they consider to be less fortunate than themselves.

This phenomena can also be true among people with different disabilities. Persons who have cognitive or developmental disabilities sometimes have trouble being accepted by people who have only physical disabilities. Persons who experience speech and communication difficulties also may have acceptance problems that transcend their disability.

All of these behaviors could be considered efforts on the discriminator's part to elevate their own group's status by disassociating themselves with people who they consider to be intellectually or otherwise capable. Although it seems to contradict the idea that condescending behavior is motivated by a need to help, there is no contradiction. Condescending behavior is really motivated by a desire to elevate one's own perceived status.

Condescending attitudes can be extremely subtle and difficult to identify. Once identified they can also be awkward to point out. The "offender" may be hurt if their efforts to "help" are misunderstood. And they are unlikely to accept the argument that they were really trying to elevate their own status at the expense of anothers.

In other words, rather than confronting condescending behaviors immediately upon detection, it may be more effective for leaders to let a situation pass and intervene at a later, more appropriate, moment. Depending upon the situation, it may even be best to avoid direct intervention. Instead, adventure leaders can set clear examples by role modeling non-condescending behavior patterns.

A helpful guide in identifying condescending attitudes is to think of the differences in behavior appropriate for interaction with a child, and what is appropriate for adult interaction. The following examples illustrate the point:

Sometimes in their desire to get people involved, inexperienced leaders may complete a task, and then give credit to a person with a disability who simply watched the process. I've seen people collect firewood, cut it, set the fire up, and then give a match to a disabled person to light the fire. After the twigs are set ablaze, the leader compliments the disabled participant for having "made" such a wonderful fire.

Another leader with the same goal might look for methods that the person can actually become involved in the process. A woman with cerebral palsy who used a wheelchair was able to hold the log and stabilize it while it was being sawed. After it was cut, she put on a pair of gloves and broke off twigs and small branches, putting these aside for kindling. It took her longer, but she did make real contributions to the effort. When the fire was lit she was thanked for her help in a tone of voice that indicated the same level of appreciation that would have been given to anyone. No exaggerated sense of surprise or obsequious praise was expressed.

Setting the foundation for true integration requires a recognition of mutuality and ultimately acceptance on a peer level. Which of the examples above indicates a greater level of respect on a peer level? The first example may satisfy the leader's need for involvement, but it is merely tokenism. The second example represents a tangible contribution to the process and an acceptance of that contribution for what it is. Respecting each person's dignity involves the basic recognition that, although everyone needs to have purpose and meaning in their lives, false or exaggerated praise usually reinforces feelings of inferiority on the part of the person who is receiving the praise.

At a minimum it is vital that leaders of mixed ability groups avoid statements and actions that might reinforce condescending attitudes. Leaders must examine their feelings in advance, and adapt the humble but accurate posture that a person's physical, emotional, or intellectual capabilities have little bearing on their "worth" as a human being. What really counts is not what you have, but how you use it.

In arranging adaptations, adventure leaders should consider as many options as safely possible to avoid compromising a person's dignity. Some situations may demand undignified solutions, but these are relatively few. Often in the rush to get things done expediently, there is a great temptation to implement the quickest, physically easiest situation.

As one trip leader put it:

> "On my first wilderness canoe trip we encountered several boggy portages that were difficult for anyone and totally inaccessible for wheelchairs. Instead of trying to wheel down the trail, a capable young woman in a wheelchair opted for a carry across the trail. We started put 'piggy-back style', but as I was sucked into the mud it shifted to more of a sack of potatoes over the shoulder style. It was easier for me, but the woman was physically uncomfortable with my shoulder in her stomach, and the unglamorous position compromised her dignity (mine too!). We survived, but in hindsight I would take an extra half hour and do it differently today."

When contemplating any activity, leaders are wise to consider the effect it will have upon a participant's sense of dignity. Sometimes addressing the issue of potentially unglamorous adaptations openly and in advance with the person involved will give input and help them gain acceptance for the solution. In the end, if a person's dignity is compromised adventure leaders may have more problems than if they had crawled through the bog on all fours!

Open Lines of Communication

When integrating people with diverse backgrounds and abilities it is essential to have clear communication. Leaders should be open and honest about assessing situations and talking about feelings and attitudes. The final goal here is no different than with any other group. Leaders simply want group members to feel comfortable talking about their needs, desires, and expectations of the experience.

One of the first objectives is to encourage frank and honest discussion about needs and expectations. Certain needs or situations might effect safety or other group members, such as the possibility of having seizures, and should be made known to the whole group. Disclosing this type of information may constitute an emotional risk for the person involved. Adventure leaders can make it easier for participants to share their physical and emotional needs by disclosing a few of their own. At the very least, leaders must make it known that everyone is accepted for who they are, regardless of the physical or intellectual capabilities.

Through applications and pre-screening, leaders should know the specific physical needs of every participant in advance. If these needs are not voluntarily shared with the group by the disabled individual during an introductory group talk, leaders must make the choice to push for disclosure or let it pass for later. The decision, of course, depends on the situation.

For example, night blindness or a bladder infection are not necessarily issues that all members must be aware of. However, if you are planning a night activity, or if people cannot understand why someone is drinking so much water and making frequent toilet stops, these factors might be better off disclosed.

On certain issues, such as time-consuming personal hygiene needs, the emotional feelings can become more intense. Leaders must approach these situations with sensitivity and a straightforward manner. Perhaps a leading question, like "John, do you have any personal routines that we should know about in planning our schedule tomorrow? Can we break camp at 7 AM, or do we need more time?". When questions are asked in a straightforward manner and for a good reason, very few people will feel threatened by responding openly and honestly.

Conscious attention to the communication process is even more important when a participant's ability to communicate is affected by their disability. Programs that integrate mixed groups of deaf and hearing participants must have an adequate number of sign-language interpretors involved, but it is not necessary for everyone to know sign language. Many deaf people are eager to teach the basics of sign language if someone is willing to learn. Leaders can take advantage of this by arranging games and activities where learning some sign language is incorporated into the event.

Another area of concern involves people with speech difficulties. Persons who slur their words, stutter, or use communication boards are at a disadvantage when they try to communicate. When integrating people with speech difficulties into a group, it is vital that leaders establish a pattern for the group to follow.

Leaders should never pretend to understand what a person is saying if it is unclear. If a message is not clear, ask the person to repeat it as many times as necessary until it is understood. This process may be cumbersome, but to falsely indicate that a message was understood is a real insult. Unfortunately, some people with speech difficulties are so used to being misunderstood that they hesitate to speak out in the first place. Leaders must always let it be known that they will take the time to communicate.

Participants usually have excellent suggestions on ways in which they can become more involved. Always ask a person for suggestions if it is an issue that affects them.

Establish Patterns for Integrated Decision Making

In the course of any adventure, the way in which decisions are made has a significant influence on the group. Decision making can involve everyone, only a few, or only one. The degree to which a person is involved in decision making is often interpreted as a sign of their status within the group. Adventure leaders can effectively elevate a persons "status" by bringing them in on making decisions.

Too many decisions are made for people instead of with them, especially when persons with speech or communication difficulties are involved. In addition to cutting off potentially valuable information and opinions, the repeated habit of making decisions for people discredits their intelligence, insight, and judgement. In effect, it compromises their dignity.

It's a sad fact but some disabled persons are so used to being left out of decision making processes that they become used to it. Even well trained adventure leaders, in the rush of making dozens of little decisions in quick order, are susceptible to making autonomous decisions that really should have the input and active involvement of those affected. It may be tempting to expeditiously make and implement a decision, but this temptation should be avoided. Although faster, autocratic decision making does not usually inspire group members to accept decisions as their own.

Adventure leaders should discuss the procedures on how decisions will be made at the start of the trip. The choices generally include autocratic, consensus, simple majority, and laisse fare. Choosing the appropriate style will depend on the situation, and different types of decisions may merit different leadership styles.

If it concerns a safety decision an autocratic style may be best — especially if the group is inexperienced and unaware of the danger. In deciding which route option to take, consensus is best because participants are more likely to "buy into" the decision. If the decision is simply whether to have lentil soup tonight or tomorrow night, a majority will suffice.

By actively soliciting the opinions of all participants when making decisions, adventure leaders can facilitate the process of integration. In effect, when participants perceive that they have equal say in decisions, it enhances the concept of equal peer status.

Emphasize the Value of Effort and Non-physical Accomplishments

In a wilderness or outdoor setting, many people have a tendency to measure their "value" according to their ability to perform physical tasks and activities. This value system probably harks back to pioneer days or earlier, when overcoming difficult demands was a matter of survival. Unfortunately, the orientation toward stress and physical challenge that some outdoor programs use today simply reinforces the notion of wilderness as a place of physical struggle.

One of the biggest challenges faced by leaders of mixed ability wilderness adventures is to counter the common thinking process that a person's value on a wilderness trip is measured by the amount of physical labor they can do. This is complicated by the fact that outdoor settings are generally less accessible for people with disabilities. Mobility and sensory impaired persons are often less able to make tangible physical contributions on the trail than they may be at home. In fact, they may become more physically dependent on others.

The worst scenario is when a person comes away from a supposedly integrated experience feeling like he or she was unable to contribute to the welfare of the rest of the group. They feel like a piece of "excess baggage", simply carried along on the strength of others. Defeating the "excess baggage syndrome" begins with a sensitivity to everyone's need to be a functioning part of a group. It also requires

recognizing and appreciating non-physical contributions that a participant makes to the group.

To effectively do this, leaders should suggest that the group place a higher value on effort than actual physical accomplishments. Participants should know that if they make an effort to utilize fully the abilities they have, they will be fulfilling their expected role. In this sense, an able-bodied person who carries a pack but exerts only a fraction of their potential is worth "less" to the group than a mobility impaired person who exerts tremendous effort and crawls across the trail. As stated earlier, it's far more effective to emphasize that living up to one's potential means using what you have effectively — rather than to lament on what you don't have. This point is essential in laying the groundwork for integrating people of varying ability levels.

It is important to stress the value of each person's attitude. In many cases, a good joke or a smile under adverse physical conditions does more to boost group moral than sheer muscle power. Sweet or sour, individual attitudes can be very contagious in group settings. Ultimately, most people are accepted or rejected by others because of their attitudes toward themselves, others and the world around them.

Leaders of mixed ability groups have numerous means to influence group thinking toward potentials of physical limitations. The world is full of stories of people who were told they couldn't do something, but who went out and did it anyway. Remember, Edison and Beethoven were hearing impaired. Frankin D. Roosevelt used a wheelchair, and Einstein had a learning disability. What would the world be like today if any one of those people retreated to the relative security of non-involvement because of insecurity over their capabilities?

This is not to suggest that physical accomplishments are unimportant. What it means is that these accomplishments must take their place alongside other, equally important accomplishments. In the course of human history few people have been remembered very long solely for their physical accomplishments. The vast majority of us must rely on other qualities if we are to get anywhere in today's society.

Once participants start thinking differently about the importance of physical versus non-physical accomplishments and challenges, they are less likely to measure their worth to the group along traditional, physically oriented benchmarks. By emphasizing the value of effort, positive attitudes, and making better use of existing abilities, leaders of mixed ability groups can enhance the process of integration by establishing a more equal set of standards by which participants can measure their efforts.

Focus on Group Challenge and Activities

Some programs emphasize individual challenges and activities, but in mixed ability groups the goal of integration is better served if programs give higher priority to group functions. This helps to equalize everyone's participation, thereby avoiding the excess baggage syndrome and the tendency for some to sit on the sidelines during certain activities.

Group activities begin by leaders promoting them over individual activities. If a suggested activity might exclude a person with a disability, leaders should bring up the issue of full group involvement and see if the person who is unable to participate has strong feelings one way or the other. If feelings of exclusion or segregation are apparent, and other options are available, then leaders should suggest other activities in which everyone can participate.

For example, in 1984 Wilderness Inquiry II (WI II) conducted it's first adventure in Canada's Yukon Territory. Two participants, both male, used crutches to aid their mobility. The group was camped on a beautiful, mountain rimmed lake and several of the able-bodied participants ex-

pressed a strong desire to spend a day climbing a mountain.

One of the mobility impaired participants, a man of 55 years, encouraged the group to do it, stating that he preferred to have the time alone. The other mobility impaired individual was a young man of 22 years who said he would be hurt if the group left him behind. One of the able-bodied participants stated unequivocally that she would be severely disappointed if she was not allowed to climb the mountain. What should an adventure leader do in a circumstance that pits such diverse needs and desires against each other?

First, look for physical options. Is there a canyon that can be explored by canoe that would satisfy the able-bodied woman's needs? In the situation mentioned above there really was no alternative to satisfy the able-bodied woman's desire to climb the mountain.

Second, determine if it is safe or feasible to split the group. In the case mentioned above, there were two skilled staff members on the trip. It was the opinion of both leaders that given the conditions it was a safe option to split the group.

Third, determine the feasibility of including the person with a disability in the activity. This is the option that was presented in the situation mentioned above. The people who wanted to climb the mountain offered to give whatever assistance they could to allow the mobility impaired participant to join them in their quest. Together they set out, and although not all of them reached the top (including the man with the mobility impairment), the overall program goal of fullest integration was achieved.

Many other components of a wilderness adventure can be approached on a group level. Throughout the experience leaders should reinforce the concept that what an individual can do is not as important as what the group collectively can accomplish. In this perspective, the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

Develop Symbiotic Relationships Among Participants

Remember the term symbiotic? It means two different entities that function together in a mutually beneficial relationship. Within each mixed-ability group there is great potential to team people with differing abilities to overcome otherwise insurmountable challenges. Adventure leaders should always be looking for combinations of physical ability that can cooperatively overcome otherwise insurmountable challenges.

For example, persons with balance or visual impairments can be teamed with persons who use wheelchairs to cross trails and portages. The former can push the wheelchair user when needed, and the person who uses the chair will provide the latter with stability and/or guidance.

Persons who are unable to carry packs may be able to help steady someone with poor balance, or serve as the "eyes" for someone who is blind, or help someone else eat or pack a sleeping bag. This combination of abilities can be used on portages or in camp.

There are many situations where the team approach, each person utilizing their specific abilities, will allow accomplishment of difficult goals. This is especially effective if leaders can team two people who need different kinds of help to accomplish a given task.

In promoting and arranging symbiotic relationships, leaders must recognize that every participant needs to make some contribution to the group's welfare in order to achieve the status of an equal team member. As the following example illustrates, there are many forms that this contribution can take.

While on a Boundary Waters Wilderness canoe trip, an ambitious group decided to "bushwack" an unmarked portage trail from one lake to the next — at night. The distance was over a mile long, up and down hills, over bogs and through some thick brush. The number of canoes and the amount of equipment required that

two or even three trips across would need to be made. Consequently it was decided to conduct the portage in stages, advancing to a point, leaving the gear, and going back for another load.

It soon became clear that there was a real possibility of not being able to locate the advanced pile of equipment on the second trip. The group tried to figure out how to solve the problem, when one person with a mobility impairment suggested that he and the others who were mobility impaired be stationed along the trail to provide an audio beacon for those carrying the gear. One person who had polio was left with the initial pile of equipment and another man with multiple sclerosis made his way to the "advance" station where gear would be placed. By singing, cracking jokes, and generally raising a ruckus the mobility impaired people were able to effectively guide the people carrying packs and canoes.

While the above example is not recommended in every similar circumstance (the group concluded they should have done the portage in one day), it does demonstrate a creative approach to solving a problem that utilized participants for the capabilities that they possess. Many of the examples discussed below utilize the concept of symbiotic relationships as a skill that requires a constant search for the right fit of abilities and tasks.

Delineate and Delegate Tasks

Many programs stress the rotation of certain tasks among group members, each participant expected to take part in a given activity, such as washing dishes an equal number of times. This system works well when all members of the group are capable of executing the same tasks, but when certain people are unable to perform some of the tasks this system can skew the work load toward the more physically capable, discouraging participation by some.

In a mixed ability group it should be made known that if everyone wants to contribute equal effort and energy to the benefit of the group, it may be necessary to divide tasks and have certain people perform the same tasks on a repeated basis. In the end, this system may better serve the goal of integration.

Someone who can only participate in limited areas should be allowed the freedom of choice to participate in those areas as often as they feel the need. For some, this may mean cutting wood, carrots, or bread. Others may be able to help with dishes or tasks that can be set before them. If a leader suspects that someone is suffering from the excess baggage syndrome they should ask them to help with a task they can conceivably complete.

Leaders are in a good position to help direct work loads and energy flows, but they must be careful in doing so. Persons who are unable to contribute in certain ways should never be required to do more than their share in another area. In other words, just because someone is unable to carry a canoe doesn't mean they should be assigned to the cook crew every night. However, if cooking is the means by which they can make their most significant contribution, they should be afforded the freedom to cook as often as they want.

In delineating and delegating tasks, leaders must be able to identify components of specific activities, and break them out into task units that allow participation by people with mixed abilities. As illustrated below, this can be done for any activity and for any sized group.

In the context of a wilderness canoe trip, these components include:

1) Basic Travel
   - A) Paddling canoes
   - B) Loading and unloading canoes
   - C) Portaging and carrying
   - D) Navigation
2) Camp Chores and Activities
   - A) Starting and maintaining fires and/or stoves
   - B) Food preparation and clean-up
   - C) Setting up and taking down tents

D) Preparing and closing latrines
E) Camp clean up and restoration
F) Procuring water for the group

3) Personal Needs
A) Feeding assistance
B) Medications
C) Washing clothes and hair
D) Mobility
E) Assistance dressing
F) Hygiene and toileting

4) Safety
A) Implementing safety policies
B) Keeping canoe in close formation while traveling
C) Extinguishing fires
D) Weather observation

5) Other Activities
A) Wildlife identification
B) Plant identification
C) Moderating discussions
D) Fishing
E) Minimum impact practices
F) Repairing clothes and equipment

Each of these trip components can, in turn, be further broken down into smaller tasks. To illustrate the point we shall analyze the process of fire building and maintenance and relate specific components to possible assignments.

Components of Building and Maintaining Fires

A) Selecting fire site
B) Obtaining firewood
C) Sawing Firewood
D) Trimming twigs from sawed logs
E) Collecting kindling — twigs, birch bark, leaves or grass
F) Arranging materials for optimal combustions
G) Applying match or lighter
H) Fanning flames or coals (if necessary)
I) Adding fuel (wood) as needed
J) Protecting wood from rain
K) Extinguishing fire
L) Possibly dismantling fire site

It is possible to integrate persons of varying ability levels in all or some of the components above by arranging symbiotic teams. People who have control of their upper bodies can usually saw logs, trim twigs, collect and prepare kindling, arrange materials, keep the fire burning, add fuel, and extinguish and possibly dismantle the fire-ring if it is appropriate in the given area. Someone with a visual impairment can usually help with all of the tasks depending on the degree of their impairment. Persons who have uncontrolled movement or spasticity in their limbs may not be suited to safely operate a saw, but they can strip twigs or help stabilize the log for someone else to saw.

Each person in a mixed ability group will have different conditions and abilities to participate in a task such as fire building. The important point is that *most tasks can be broken down into components that can be "fit" to a person's ability*. This may involve two or three people teaming up to get a job done, but with each tangible contribution to the process, the goal of full participation is achieved.

Other Examples of Task Delegation Toward the Goal of Equal Participation and Integration

On one trip someone fell on a tent and tore it. A trip leader asked who in the group could sew, and an elderly woman in a wheelchair eagerly volunteered. She was given the sewing kit, and proceeded to fix the tear in every tent, life-jacket, and duluth pack. She did a far better job than the trip leaders could at this task.

A woman with cerebral palsy was able to carry packs, but her hands were too spastic to allow her to eat with utensils. She helped push another person in a wheelchair who, in turn, helped her eat every bowl of soup that was served.

A participant with multiple sclerosis was greatly upset because throughout the trip, he realized how much function and control he had lost. The leaders tried to comfort him, but they were ineffective. A woman who was quadraplegic and unable to help with physical tasks volunteered to

comfort him. She skillfully helped the person with M.S. come to a better understanding of how to make the best out of his situation. The effect on the individual, and the group, was incredible. It was easily the most powerful emotional experience of the trip for everyone.

Around the camp fire one night a man who is severely affected by cerebral palsy shared his philosophy of life, which had a dramatic effect on several group members. At one time, he was able to walk and talk, but he had occasional spasms. To reduce the spasms, a medical team drilled two holes in his head and performed a lobotomy, accidentally taking away his speech and his ability to walk. The spasms stayed. His acceptance and his will to live were truly inspirational and made everyone forget their aching bodies.

Once a participant who had suffered a stroke revealed that he served in Viet Nam. In the middle of a difficult portage, one person thoughtlessly asked him if he had killed anyone. Understandably the man became very upset with the question. It was a tense, awkward moment. A blind woman who is a speech therapist took the man by the hand and asked him to forgive the thoughtless comment and the awful injustice of war. They walked for a short distance and talked about something. That night the man told a heart rendering saga of his experiences, and the group came away with a new understanding of the war, the plight of disabled veterans, and the man himself.

The examples above of physical and non-physical contributions demonstrate that an individual's "worth" to a group is not limited to the amount they can carry on a trail. In each of the cases above significant contributions to the group welfare were made by persons who didn't fit the rugged "wilderness traveler" stereotype.

Summary

Most of us have been told that we cannot do certain things. Instead of concentrating on a person's abilities, society tends to place greater emphasis on limitations. In setting the tone for integration on mixed ability adventure, staff members are essentially molding the group norms to seek physical and non-physical potentials instead of limitations.

Expanding the ability to consider potentials over limitations is usually a major goal of programs serving people with mixed abilities. This is an important skill that can benefit everyone; adventure programs are in a unique position to encourage this type of behavior. Doing this requires an open-minded approach to problem solving, and a basic recognition that everyone needs to make some contribution to the group.

The suggestions and techniques included in this article can be summarized into three categories. These categories include:

1) Establishing the group rules for how people treat each other.

2) Facilitating participant efforts to re-examine pre-conceived limitations and their own value system for measuring accomplishments.

3) Initiating methods and approaches that enhance participation in satisfying common goals and needs.

All of the suggestions stated above are intended to enhance the capabilities for adventure leaders to develop and apply new approaches in their efforts to promote fullest participation within a mixed ability group. To be effective, leaders of mixed ability groups must establish a set of group norms that reinforces utilizing and appreciating one's capabilities rather than underscoring physical differences and limitations.

Foster Families and Adventure/ Challenge Therapy

Thomas Smith

The central point of this paper is a challenge to professionals who administer and staff community based foster family and group homes, and to professionals in recreation therapy, challenge education, and outdoor therapy. The challenge is for the advocates of adventure/challenge programming and those responsible for child care in the small foster family or group home setting to reach out to each other to develop and explore the many potentials for psychological and social growth that are offered in the special challenge sequence.

KEY WORDS: *Foster Family, Group Homes, Challenge Education, Challenge Therapy, Adventure Therapy, Therapeutic Recreation.*

Outdoor leaders and recreational professionals have developed adventure based programming for camps, schools, special education programs, hospitals, rehabilitation centers, park districts, prisons and reformatories, halfway houses, colleges, and management groups from business and industry. There have been a few explorations of challenge programs for families of the disabled (Roland & Hoyt, 1983; Roland, et. al, 1986), and with foster families caring for sexually abused/exploited youth (Smith, 1987). However, there is a need for increased cooperative programming between those skills in adventure/challenge programming and those who operate foster family and group home placement for children with socio-psychological problems.

In order to clarify this challenge, it seems important to give a brief overview to some recent societal trends in social service and special education programming, and to recognize changes in the fields of outdoor education and psychotherapy.

Deinstitutionalization

One of the major trends of the past twenty years is that of deinstitutionalization and decentralization of treatment and

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care facilities. Our society has become aware that most of the large residential treatment and child care institutions developed through the first half of this century were not effective in producing positive psychological growth and good social adjustment.

In fact, there has been accumulating evidence that large impersonal institutions often had negative impact on clients in placement. Some professionals advocated humanizing the big institutions and developing more effective program models, but the predominance of professional opinion over the past twenty years has been to decentralize and move clients to smaller community based placements (group homes, halfway houses, day treatment centers, sheltered workshops, foster family settings, etc.).

A major problem with the new system is that of delivering all the special required services that had been readily available in the larger institutions. Typically, in the big centralized residential settings, there were "departments" for medical services, social and psychological services, rehabilitation (including physical therapy and occupational therapy), recreation and education. When clients were moved to foster homes and other community placements, the case supervisors had to reach out to community resources to obtain the psychological, social, medical, and educational services. It should be noted that services from professionals in therapeutic recreation were typically not available in the community at large, and the foster parents or group home staffs were left to rely on their skills and interests in developing programs for clients. The problem was stated by a foster parent:

> "After TV time, and video movies, a few trips to the bowling alley or the electronic games arcades, and a walk around the shopping mall or the zoo, we really don't know what to do with family recreation." (personal communication, 1986).

Outdoor Education

Curriculum in outdoor education, emphasizing nature study, conservation and ecology has been available for many years. The past two decades have brought considerable expansion of the offerings, with new curriculums designed to meet the psychological and educational needs of youth (Smith, 1981a). Drawing upon the ideas of sensory/environmental awareness (Van Matre, 1972, 1974, 1979), outdoor adventure (Petzoldt, 1974; Miner, 1984), the "human potential movement" (Ferguson, 1978; Satir, 1972; Knapp & Goodman, 1983), and the tenants of experiential education, a new "challenge curriculum" has developed (Roland & Havens, 1981; Robb, et. al., 1983). The curriculum has drawn from the ideas about non-competitive games (Fluegelman, 1976, 1981; Weinstein & Goodman, 1980; Rohnke, 1985), ropes and teams courses (Rohnke, 1977; Roland, 1985), self-concept enhancement (Canfield & Wells, 1975; Simon, 1972; Elkins, 1979), and even the rituals and ceremonies of the Native American Indians (Storm, 1972; Smith, 1981; Pearse & Taylor, 1985). The developers of challenge curriculum have also recognized the value of small group theory (Jensen, 1979; Bonner, 1959; Robb & Hamilton, 1985), and a variety of relaxation and centering activities (Hendricks & Wills, 1977; Benson, 1975; Smith, 1981).

Outdoor education today means much more than pond study, star gazing, tree identification, canoeing, and campfires, although all of that may be included in the unfolding curriculum. Outdoor leaders can be seen facilitating "blind walks", "tree climbs", "secret places", and "lofting" activities. Much of the curriculum is designed to enhance the psychological and social growth of the participant. There are exercises to stir the emotions of fear and trust, to build feelings of self-confidence, and to develop the cohesiveness of the group. Challenge therapists can be found facilitating a group initiative task, belaying a youth struggling with a tree climb,

and leading debriefing discussions for the group. This new pattern of outdoor education might even be considered as "outdoor therapy", for the motive is for personal growth, improved social adjustment, and spiritual fulfillment.

Psychotherapy

Psychotherapists and counselors have also seen some significant changes in both theory and practice over the past few decades. Long term one-to-one psychotherapy, in the tradition of the psychoanalytic movement (Freud, Adler, Jung, etc.), and the various humanistic/existential models (Rogers, Maslow, May, Tillich, etc.), have been recognized as impractical for the great number of individuals who need counseling intervention. Since World War II there has been increased exploration of group methodologies, time-limited therapies, usage of lay therapists and peer counselors, and development of therapeutic milieus.

As the profession of School Psychology developed through the 1960's and 1970's strategies for groupwork with classrooms and special population groups were developed. As the "third force" in American Psychology unfolded (humanistic/existential/phenomenological theory as opposed to either psychoanalytic/psychodynamic theory or scientific behavioristic theory) in the "human potential movement", there was a great expansion in available strategies for therapeutic intervention. By the 1980's conferences for psychologists, counselors, social workers, and others doing psychotherapy included workshops on strategies such as relaxation/centering, guided imagery, sharing groups, psychodrama, "vision quests", tai chi, I Ching, awareness through movement, and trust building. A few therapists had even begun to introduce concepts of "wilderness therapy", noting that "there is a wilderness beyond... and there is a wilderness within... (Smith, 1981).

As the 1980's unfolded there had developed a working relationship between many outdoor leaders and those psychologists and therapists who advocated the potentials of the new challenge therapies. Outdoor leaders were looking to professionals in psychology and psychotherapy to better understand the individual and group dynamics that unfolded on the adventure trail; and therapists interested in exploring the potentials of the challenge sequence for personal growth were seeking to develop skills in the outdoor pursuits and associated activities. However, it should be noted that most of the mental health center or hospital therapists, and most of the private practice therapists, maintained traditional styles for deliverance of counseling. (Psychologists and social workers in private practice were just beginning to be recognized as vendors for third party payments, and were not about to risk innovative new models for delivery of therapeutic services.) It is from these more traditional therapists, in private practice or community mental health centers, that the case managers of clients in community placements sought services. If a teenager in a foster home placement was considered as needing counseling, then the chances were very great that the offering would be of a traditional 50 minute session once a week (or less). Few programs offered a multi-dimensional therapeutic intervention (Smith, 1986).

Special Education

Since the federal government implemented Public Law 94-142, mandating special education services for all eligible youth, there has been great expansion of special offerings to youth in need. As programs have expanded there has been increasing awareness of the limitations of traditional special education models for both educational and psychological attention to youth. New ideas for special populations have been offered, including challenge curriculums (Robb, et. al., 1983; Robinson & Skinner, 1985; Smith, 1987).

This expansion of special education programming has involved an overlap with

the societal trend of deinstitutionalization. As the community placements increased, more and more youth with special needs were moved into catchment areas for the schools. In other words, the increase in community based foster homes and group homes challenged the schools to build appropriate special programs to meet the needs of youth in placement. Sometimes, working relationships between the special educators and the foster home administrators unfolded, and there have been some very successful efforts to improve educational programming for troubled youth. Through the special education programs there has often been cooperative development of challenge sequences, as the educators and therapists have worked with outdoor educators, outdoor leaders and recreation therapists. Unfortunately, very few parents have been involved in these cooperative efforts.

Foster Family Goals

As the process of decentralization has unfolded, foster family and group home placements have not only increased in number of youth served, but in terms of overall responsibility as well. In addition to the traditional goal of providing youth in placements a safe, secure, and nurturing environment, foster parents have had to take on the responsibility for insuring proper medical, psychological, and educational services. Then, by the mid-1970's professionals began to recognize the potential for foster parents to actively teach youth more appropriate social behaviors. Especially at Boys' Town in Nebraska, which developed an elaborate "teaching parent" model, there was attention to the foster parent actually engaging in complex "teaching interaction" with youth to modify behavioral patterns. This model has been expanded to a number of other foster family and group home settings (Salvatino, 1986).

It could be argued that too little thought has been given to the foster homes' responsibility for developing meaningful recreational programming for youth in placement. Obviously, leisure time activities are an important part of family life, and in the foster family setting it would be desirable to have sound therapeutic recreational programming. In the teaching family model there is careful reinforcement of appropriate social behaviors and individualized goal attainment with special recreational or privilege time. Foster parents seldom have the input and programming assistance of professionals in recreation and leisure time usage. Therefore, the typical offerings are for TV time, movies, gym activities, and other standard free-time recreation.

It would be possible, with thought and exploration, to develop an actual curriculum of psychological growth and social learning via recreational activities. With proper training and supervision foster parents and the staffs of group homes could offer sequences of exciting challenge and adventure programming to their clients, and this would make recreational time contribute to overall treatment and developmental goals for those clients. The "challenge curriculum" that has unfolded for educator-recreationalist interaction would seem to have solid promise for family-educator-therapist-recreationist cooperation.

Challenge Curriculum and Foster Families

In light of the above outlined development and trends, there is obvious challenge to bring foster family and group home staffs together with adventure educators/therapists/recreationalists. A carefully developed program for "challenge therapy" could provide a number of important things for the foster family and group home family.

1) *Building "family" cohesiveness:* In the challenge/adventure sequence, interacting individuals develop a strong sense of sharing, caring, trusting, and belonging to the group. Advocates of challenge se-

quences are quick to argue that there may be a faster and deeper development of that sense of "community" or "family" than for any other group building methodology. It is obvious that the foster family or group home family that develops a solid cohesiveness can be more effective for all involved.

2) *Stimulation of "therapeutic recreation":* Challenge activities are typically "fun" as well as educational and therapeutic. Since most foster parents have limited skills in developing meaningful recreation offerings for their homes, a challenge curriculum could be a guidemap to teach them new skills that could be applied on a long-term basis.

3) *Facilitation of personal and social growth:* If challenge and adventure activities are sequenced properly for the foster family or group home family populations, there can be stimulus for each member or the group toward personal insight and personal growth. Foster parents can develop alternative methodologies for processing their group adventures, and need not have extensive counseling training to turn the activities to a productive personal growth experience (Smith, 1987). Special relationships develop between parent and child, staff and client, and between family members, during the challenge sequence. Those relationships which develop between adult and youth in a special tree climb or a shared canoe can be used later to have solid therapy interactions.

4) *Reduction of management issues:* Typically, foster home parents and the staff of group homes have to spend considerable time at the management of negative and maladaptive behaviors of youth in placement. In the adventure/challenge sequence, with the stimulating and group involving activities, management issues are typically reduced (Leslie & Smith, 1986). This enables the staff to have more time for positive interaction with clients, and to establish positive expectancies for the future.

Challenge/adventure sequences for the foster family could be offered as a short-term exposure, or, preferably, as an ongoing part of any placement program. An adventure program could be offered for a few hours or a few days, or preferably, as a monthly timeblock for ongoing group development. Obviously, there can be argument for some minimum time and program offering; it would be desirable to avoid the situation of "immersion" (a time-limited plunge into the concept of adventure/challenge without regard for warm-up or follow-up, and without proper attention to the sequential development of the group). On the other hand, few foster homes would be able to develop an elaborate challenge/adventure program within their budget. The balance would involve foster family and group home administrators and those with adventure skills setting realistic and meaningful goals for any program exploring foster family and group home families in the challenge sequence. In other words, the exact design and sequence to be offered should be tailored to the resources, needs, and time limitations of the groups involved.

Suggestions for an Introductory Challenge Sequence for a Foster Family or Group Home Family

Whatever the offering for exploration, it would be valuable to include the following five phases in any sequence of challenge/adventure therapy for a foster home group.

Phase 1: *Warm-up sessions, pre-adventure.* Any program of challenge/adventure should begin with appropriate warm-up and orientation. This "ignition" offering might involve the challenge facilitator visiting the foster family or group home setting for a session or two of group building exercises and pre-adventure instruction. The facilitator might share information on climbing ropes, cold weather dress, initiative games, guided fantasy exercises (depending on the nature of the adventure to unfold). Most importantly, there would be group activities that are exciting and which could be stimulus for more

challenge/adventure interaction as the sequence unfolds; and there should be an introduction to the whole process of debriefing and group sharing.

Phase 2: *Adventure site warm-ups and instruction.* When the foster family actually begins the adventure (be at their home, in a park or at an outdoor center), the first offering is "warm-up". Tasks can be more complicated as the group develops, but there must be time for appropriate attention to instruction and issues of safety. The emphasis should still be on group building, but facilitators might also introduce some opportunity for individual goal setting.

Phase 3: *High impact challenge/adventure.* When a group has evolved to readiness for the more complex challenges actual adventure sequences can be introduced. This may involve initiative games, group problem solving tasks, a teams course, cross-country ski journey, or a hike and cave exploration. The goal of individual and group growth, with attention to safety and properly supervised sequences, should be kept in mind. The process is much more important than the goal. The group must evolve at its own pace, and facilitators should take caution to not push a group forward to higher risks tasks before they are ready.

Phase 4: *Adventure site debriefing and closure.* It is important that there be time for individual and group processing of the adventure, especially if there is a series of unfolding tasks involved. However, after the adventure there is need for full group debriefing to bring the experience to a meaningful and profitable closure for everyone. Careful design of the closing activities can bring group energy "down" and open up opportunities for sharing of feelings, thoughts, conflicts, and special insights. The facilitator may even structure in certain closing exercises that help everyone to bring the adventure to closure (e.g., candle ceremonies, "gifts for the group", or introspective centering).

Phase 5: *Follow-up, post adventure.* About two to four weeks after the challenge/adventure sequence, the facilitator may wish to visit the foster family or group home again. This would be a time for sharing photos, memories, and longer term reactions to the whole sequence. Most importantly, the leader would want to bring some new follow-up activities, and be prepared to re-do some of those activities that were shared earlier. The follow-up might also include the challenge facilitator having some time for meeting with the foster parents to share observations about the group or individual youth. There might also be discussion of the opportunities for further adventure sequences, and sharing of information on resources available.

Whether the whole adventure sequence be eight hours, eight days, eight weeks or even eight months, there should be attention to the five phases of evolution. Personally, I would like to have a minimum of an afternoon or evening session of warm-up orientation, preferable a week or so prior to the adventure/challenge sequence. Then, after an hour or two for on-site warm-up and instruction, an adventure sequence of one or two days. Closure should involve an hour or two, at minimum; and follow-up should involve another afternoon of evening session with the group. Ideally, if the whole sequence were offered on such a condensed basis, it would be but a part of a longer sequence of "adventure/challenge experiences" spread over a period of months. A longitudinal sequence with a foster family would enable the parents to develop sufficient skills to incorporate some of the adventure/challenge activities into their ongoing work with youth.

Still, whether the challenge sequence is offered for only two or three days, a full week, or two - three days four or five times over the course of a year, there is value in exploring challenge curriculum with foster families and group home families. If we are able to respond creatively to the needs of youth in foster family and group home placement, then we should explore the potentials of this new strategy of adventure/challenge therapy.

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Processing the Initiatives Course Experience

Debra Jordan

Processing, or bringing closure to an initiatives course experience, is vital in helping to establish a meaningful and lasting link between the participants' experience and the "real world". Presented are several processing techniques that the teams course leader may employ in developing that link. Both verbal and nonverbal communication skills such as directed questioning, addressing participants by name, eye contact, body stance, and use of the circle formation are all helpful in effective and efficient teams course processing. Also of utmost importance to the initiatives course leader are observational skills. Observational cues are provided for recognizing and verbalizing observed leadership styles, participation patterns, decision making processes, and other group related functions. These processing techniques, communication skills, and observational cues will assist the teams course leader in providing the link between the experience and the participants' world.

KEW WORDS: *Teams Course, Initiatives, Processing, Leadership, Development, Challenge Education.*

Initiatives courses are quickly becoming an integral part of many outdoor education programs. In an attempt to maximize such programming, it is important to not only recognize the effects of participation, but also to have the ability to manipulate the magnitude and direction of those effects. This article will discuss purposes and objectives of processing, and rules of the leader during the processing experience. The use of leader questions, both open ended and directed are discussed. Finally, processing techniques and observation hints are provided for the reader.

Processing

Initiatives courses of all types (ropes courses, teams courses, challenge courses, etc.) are being utilized as a part of camping experiences, physical education

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classes, leadership development, and team building sessions. Due to their nature, initiatives will challenge participants to work through (or struggle through) the problems as presented by the leader. It is, however, the post-event and the post-course processing that cause the initiatives experience to have growing or developmental effect on the group. Unless the group learns from each preceding event, potentiality of the group will never be fully realized. Post-event processing is leader directed (or leader initiated) verbal interaction that occurs at the completion of each event while post-course processing is verbal summation of what has occurred throughout the initiatives experience.

Purpose

If the intent of an initiatives course (challenge education, adventure education, ropes course) experience is merely to offer something different, with no concern for any of the developmental aspects inherent in such activities, then processing is not important. However, the introduction of initiative (adventure) experiences into outdoor education implies the existence of some educational value. Processing is a method that can be used to help participants learn and grow through the challenge and teamwork approach of initiative activities.

The purpose of both post-event and post-course processing is to ventilate feelings, emphasize safety concerns, reiterate course objectives as they relate to the group, and to deal with the group dynamics with respect to each event and the developmental process (Hulbert & Hulbert, 1979). Although processing sessions are usually conducted at the completion of an event or course, there may be times when it would be appropriate to have a processing session in the middle of an event. Examples of when mid-course processing sessions would be appropriate are when a near fall occurs, attention spans begin to wane, or an explosive situation is at hand. There may also be times upon completion of an event when leader initiated processing is not desired. The amount and depth of participant initiated interaction may be sufficient to effectively deal with the group process.

The role of the leader is all important in the processing experience. An overly aggressive or autocratic leader or an overly lackadaisical or laissez-faire leader may inhibit both the number and quality of participant contributions. To optimize the processing experience it is best for the leader to act as a guide or facilitator. In this role the leader should take care not to inadvertently tell participants how they are functioning and feeling, but rather probe and verbally guide the participants into discovering their own emotions and attitudes. By utilizing this leadership tool, participants will better understand and accept the feelings and attitudes as their own. Participant discovery helps to internalize the developmental aspect of an initiatives course.

Content and Process

Any time there are two or more people interacting, two components of group dynamics can be found - content and process. The content component deals with the subject matter of the interaction. During the initiatives course experience the content aspect is the problem solving that occurs as the group attempts to and does accomplish the given task. Many group members focus solely upon the content portion of dynamics. When directing the post-event processing the leader should inform the group to also take note of the process aspect of dynamics. The processing component deals with morale, group tone, roles of group members, cooperation, competition, etc. When developing into a highly functioning team it is important for the group to realize how these components control the effectiveness of the group. As the group develops this understanding, they will see that it is not essential for the task to be completed - it

is the process that is the essence of the experience.

People often understand that their personal skills may be ineffective and they may attempt to improve these skills. However, most groups do not fully comprehend the impact of the process component of group dynamics. By directing processing towards these types of issues, the group can learn methods of altering these behaviors to make group work more effective. The more adept the initiatives course leader can become at recognizing both content and process aspects of group interactions, the more effective the leader will be at helping groups develop into cohesive teams.

Types of Questioning

One method of guiding participant discovery is to ask open ended questions (Dover & Kloepper, n.d). Open ended questions are those that do not guide the group towards any particular train of thought. Although the questions are related to the expressed behaviors and group dynamics of that event, the leader does not either subtly or obviously direct the responses in any one direction. Examples of this type of question are, "How do you feel about this event?" or "Would anyone like to comment on this event?".

Another type of leader questioning is directed questioning. This method of questioning requires the leader to verbally guide participants towards revealing their thoughts and feelings about a particular issue or concept that has manifested itself during the course of the activity. These questions or comments might subtly or openly lead the group into discovering important issues concerning their development as a team. For instance, if the leader noticed one very dominant person in the group and wanted to bring the group's attention to that situation, the initiatives course leader might ask the group if they had noticed any one participant taking an assertive leadership position within the group. Group thought and attention is focused on the issue and the participants are then able to process feelings, attitudes and thoughts regarding assertive (or aggressive) leadership behaviors.

To encourage the fullest understanding and internalizing of discoveries it is important that issues discovered during processing be related to the daily world of the participants (Kylloe, 1984). Initiative activities are fun, challenging, and exciting and are commonly led with the use of fantasies or stories as the basis for the problem solving aspect of the course (Rohnke, 1977). As an example, the leader may tell the group that the objective of a particular event (the All Aboard, for example) is to get all the group members onto the "spaceship" (a 2 foot square platform, 18 inches high) and accomplish "blast-off" (remain on the platform for a count of ten). The inclusion of the fantasy helps encourage creativity and gives an element of fun to a potentially frustrating situation. Upon completion of the event, it is the responsibility of the leader to help group members relate the "spaceship" problem to obstacles they might encounter in their daily world. Each event, as well as the entire course, needs to be made relevant for each individual to maximize the internalization of learned concepts. The leader should understand and be able to share with participants the concept that attitudes, biases, problem solving techniques, and leadership styles manifested during an initiatives session very probably manifest themselves in the daily world of that individual. These attitudes, biases, problem solving techniques and leadership styles are the issues that the leader should help the group address in post-event and post-course processing. Group offered suggestions for working with, overcoming, and/or adjusting to these issues within each event will further group development and enjoyment of the initiatives course. Through questioning and verbal cues, the leader may assist the group in exploring ways which these aspects of

group interaction affect the effectiveness and efficiency of high functioning teams. It is appropriate during the post-course processing for the leader to help the group summarize these concepts and relate them to the group in daily living situations.

As each event becomes more challenging and calls on team members to extend their own "comfort zone", the interactions between group members may become more stimulating. Undesirable attitudes or biases may become more easily recognizable and may cause a potentially explosive situation. The surfacing of such issues requires immediate processing. Throughout the discussion it is important that the leader maintain an open and caring attitude towards all group members. By being attentive to his/her own non-verbal language, tone of voice, and choice of wording the leader will develop a better understanding of the group. The initiatives course leader should be alert to the promotion of group understanding of actions and attitudes, and prevent the incrimination or negative criticism of participant(s). It is best that processing encourage and embellish personal and group revelations and not be disparaging or depreciating towards any aspect of the course.

Processing Techniques

There are processing techniques that will help the leader optimize group involvement and honesty. The leader may encourage all participants to sit or stand in a circle so that every group member is able to see every other group member's eyes. The leader may also ask that group members grasp hands as they form this circle. If the leader merely asks the group to form a circle there will inevitably be some individuals who stand closer to the center than others and some who choose to stand a step behind everyone else. This causes the formation to be more of an elipse than a circle. This may seem trivial, but positioning of an individual within a circle may indicate dominance, reticence, or non-involvement. The ability to see everyone else's eyes helps to place everyone on equal footing, breaking down distrust, and encourage open dialogue. The leader may also wish to have those wearing dark glasses remove them for the same reasons.

Smiling, eye contact, and an open stance will do much towards relaxing group members and eliciting honest responses and reactions. The initiatives course leader should maintain control of the group and allow everyone an opportunity to share their thoughts and feelings (Hulbert & Hulbert, 1979). The leader may wish to pose a question and ask each participant to respond in turn. Open-ended questions posed to the group as a whole, may only elicit responses from three or four persons. The leader may encourage further participation of other members by directing questions to those non-speaking persons by name.

To more fully understand group communication it is important for the leader to be able to understand both verbal and non-verbal messages. There are times when verbal and non-verbal messages appear to contradict one another; often the non-verbal behavior is a more accurate representation of the individual's thoughts and feelings. Often times, commenting on body language will evoke more honest replies and promote further verbal interaction in processing. For instance, commenting to a participant, "You seem a little anxious about this event", may help to let that person know that fear is acceptable and allow the person to feel good about it. Validating one's fears and anxieties goes a long way towards improving trust, honesty, and group development.

If the initiatives experience is to be a positive one, it is important for the leader to maintain a positive, cheerful attitude both within the group and between group members. Negative comments made by participants towards other participants must be strongly discouraged. Should any derogatory comment be made (i.e. a par-

ticipant calls another participant a "baby" or "chicken") the initiatives course leader should stop the activity. Part of the processing that should occur at this point might include directing the group into recalling the course objectives. As one of the course objectives is usually improving group cohesiveness, the leader can then help the group to see the connection between group interaction (whether it be negative or positive) and effective and efficient teamwork. To prevent disparaging comments and attitudes, the leader should stress and build upon the concept of positive regard towards all persons. It is then relatively easy to make the connection between this concept in the initiatives course and the daily worlds of the individuals.

Observation Hints

When observing *participant patterns* between group members the leader should look for those who fully participate, those who do not participate, shifts in participation, and the reasons for those shifts. The leader should also observe how the group treats those who frequently participate versus those who do not participate. Are non-participants ignored? Do others attempt to include them in the group decisions? Is someone getting attention because of inaction and uninvolvement? Are there individuals who appear withdrawn and unresponsive? Who maintains movement towards task accomplishment?

Leadership styles will quickly become evident to the observant initiatives course leader. The course leader should note group reactions towards different individuals within the group who project particular styles of leadership (autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire) (Simpson, 1974). Does the group react differently towards individuals manifesting different leadership styles? Is that reaction different for men than women, old than young? Is there a different leader for each activity or does the same leader take over for every event? Why does this happen? How do group members react to the different leaders? Do participants seem willing to follow each leader? Do they hesitate or refuse to follow a particular leader?

During the *decision making process* does the group drift from one suggestion to another without physically attempting any of the alternatives? Does anyone make a decision and begin to act without checking with the remainder of the group? How does this affect the group? Is there any attempt at getting a consensus? Do participants offer suggestions that no one seems to hear? If the same method of solution is attempted more than once without success, does anyone suggest an alternative, or does the group keep stumbling with the same effort? How are suggestions rejected? How does this affect the group? Do people get cut off as they try to offer verbal assistance? How does the group react to this?

The active initiatives leader must constantly attempt to observe both individual members and the group as a whole for *feelings and emotions* that emerge as a part of the group interaction (Hulbert, & Hulbert, 1979). The leader should watch nonverbal language, body placement in relation to others, and facial and body expressions for feelings such as: anger, irritation, frustration, fear, anxiety, defensiveness, competition, apathy, affection, disgust, enjoyment, exhilaration, pride, tolerance and concern.

An important aspect of an effectively functioning group is a feeling of *"group cohesiveness"*. The leader should note the atmosphere of the group. Is it warm and inclusive? Do some people seem to be shunned or outside of the group? What is the reason for this? Is there any formation of cliques within the larger group? How are different people treated by the rest of the group? Do some participants move in and out of the group depending on the event? What causes this? Do participants seem fully involved with the group? Does it appear as though individuals have a good sense of self as a member of the group? Are all the group members

treated equally? Are all group members given an opportunity to both physically and verbally complete a task?

Conclusion

The purpose of processing is to maximize participant involvement, maintain safety, and ventilate feelings. In an attempt to reach these goals, the initiatives course leader should take an active role in initiating and guiding both the task events and group processing. Focusing group members' attention on the process (group dynamics) rather than the content of the task related goals will help achieve maximum benefits of the experience.

One method of guiding participant discovery through the processing session is to ask either directed or open ended questions. Making individual tasks and the course relevant to each group member is important in the internalization of learned concepts. A leader's concern for openness, honesty, and caring attitudes will help make the initiatives course experience challenging, rewarding, and a growing experience to all involved.

Several processing techniques, suggestions regarding verbal and nonverbal communication, and observation hints are provided. The leader's awareness of participation patterns, leadership styles, decision-making processes, emotions and levels of group cohesiveness both within and between group members will help the leader(s) to maximize the processing experience.

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Optimizing Experiential Education With Young Children

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Learning by doing — experiential education — is widely used with homogeneous groups. Such learning offers programs that can promote optimal growth and development for children between the ages of three and six years. This paper seeks to address the uniqueness of the young child, provides a review of traditional approaches in educating young children, offers a rationale for including young children in experiential programs, and makes recommendations for planning safe and effective curricula for this age group.

KEY WORDS: *Experiential Learning, Young Children, Outdoor Education, Interaction, Developmental Stages, Program Development.*

Consider the following scenario:

"As a facilitator of experiential education, it is not uncommon to be told by your supervisor that on a particular day you will have a unique group to program for. You have one hour to prepare a lesson plan on environmental awareness, so you gather some trusty equipment and review a few of your favorite activities. Because of the diversity served by the outdoor center and because your previous experiences with these activities have all been successful, you are not anxious about programming for any group. However, as this group draws near, you realize what is unique about it — the members are all between the ages of three and six years." Would you be prepared to facilitate a learning experience with this group?

Recent literature on experiential education suggests that by exposing oneself to a situation which involves learning by doing — experiential education — a person can realize growth; including physical (Rosenthal, 1981), emotional (Smith, 1982),

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social (Darst & Armstrong, 1980), and intellectual (Raiola, 1986). The use of experiential learning as a process within the context of experiential education has been introduced to older adults (Hupp, 1986), persons with developmental disabilities (Frant, Roland & Schemp, 1982), legal offenders (Hunter, 1984), and a myriad of other homogeneous groups. The characteristics of the group members have to be understood both individually and collectively when they are introduced to the process of an experiential program. Some examples of understanding required when implementing experiential education programs responsibly with such groups may include; an awareness among facilitators that some persons who are older may be more susceptible to bone fractures; that some persons who are developmentally disabled may take medicine which makes them sensitive to direct sunlight, etc.

With the inclusion of more people in experiential education programs, participants are being exposed to the process of outdoor learning at an earlier age (Roland & Hoyt, 1984). Young children, between the ages of three and six years, have not been addressed in the literature related to experiential education. This paper seeks to address the uniqueness of the young child, review traditional approaches in educating young children, offer a rationale for including young children in experiential programs, and make recommendations for planning safe and effective curricula for this age group.

What Is Unique About Young Children?

The purpose of this section is to outline a framework which describes the developmental sequence of young children between the ages of three and six years, the specific uniqueness at each age, and the impact of this uniqueness on their learning environments. Both the specific skills and the process of their development have been the focus of much observation, research, and discussion. This is a period of rapid growth and the developmental skills and processes during this time are critical. Because young children are not just small adults, it is important to be aware of the unique skills that are available for their use at each age level, to have an understanding of the process of their development, and the interrelatedness of these skills and processes for planning.

A framework for identifying unique skills comes from the following tenets: 1) skills develop from simple to complex; 2) skills develop from adaptations made via interactions within an increasingly demanding environment, and 3) skills develop in a sequential manner (Bricker & Bricker, 1978; Gesell & Armatruda, 1941). This framework holds true for language development, social development, motor development and cognitive development. Therefore, the developmental skill repertoire of a three year old would not be as complex as that of a seven year old. The seven year old requires the skills learned when she was three in order to be competent.

The ages at which skills appear are not the most important factor in this framework. They provide landmarks by which one may predict the onset of skills. In addition, they provide timetables by which one can predict when a given child may begin a particular developmental sequence. These landmarks and timetables are based on milestones or sequences of many skills such as sitting, walking, talking and sharing toys with a peer during play. Each one of these milestones is comprised of many skill sequences and if a child uses the milestone, then one may hypothesize that she has each of the skills within the sequence.

For example, the following tables detail the relationship among three variables central to experiential education programs for young children. Examples of variables are represented by the information covered in the three columns; the first, entitled unique characteristics of a specific age; the second, considerations for

TABLE 1
Unique characteristics of three year olds, implications for their learning environments, and sample experiental curricula.

Unique Characteristics (three year olds)	Considerations For Their Learning Environments	Sample Curriculum: Environmental Awareness
—Follows 2-3 related directions.	—Directions and re-directions are given clearly, in relation to children's use and understanding of the language, and should be given one step at a time.	—Children circle tree, holding hands. Then, the group circles the tree several times changing directions.
—Ability to quickly change from one motor activity to another is not well developed; can run and jump.	—Staff expect children to be physically and mentally active and integrate skills from both areas into planned activities.	—Children kneel in a circle around the tree. Rotating around the circle, the children make one statment about the tree.
—Children are constantly asking questions.	—The staff provide the time and opportunity for children to communicate on any topic.	—Children will pass a natural object (e.g. dead twig, leaf, root) around the group in a sharing circle.
—Children are beginning to use language to communicate feelings.	—Staff provide a wide variety of activities and materials and accept more than one right answer.	—Staff show the children a variety of pictures or items which a tree has been used for (e.g. canoe, birch bark masks, baskets, houses, food) and explain by whom and when they were used.
—Beginning to share toys and materials.	—Staff prepare the environment for children to actively explore with a balance of quiet activities.	—Children are given a lotto with pictures of sticks, rocks, leaves, etc., and are asked to match natural materials with the pictures.
—Beginning to engage in associative play, but needs some assistance in taking turns.	—Materials and events that the children are not to use should not be available.	
—Beginning to understand time and space concepts.	—Concrete learning activities and materials relevant to the childern's own experiences should be provided.	
—Attempts to please adults.		
—Needs adult supervision for self-care activities.		

TABLE 2
Unique characteristics of four year olds, implications for their learning environments, and sample experiential curricula.

Unique characteristics (four year olds)	Considerations For Their Learning Environments	Sample Curriculum: Environmental Awareness
—Talks in four and five word sentences in conversations; alternates making statements and asking questions.	—Activities should be provided that are individual or small group; the children should be given choices.	—Children lie down with feet touching the tree; they look up into the tree and are asked to name things that are seen (e.g. shapes, colors, living things)
—The child obeys because limits have been set, not because they undersand right and wrong.	—Sufficient time and opportunity should be provided to communicate.	—While in a circle around the tree, children are asked to, in turn, act out an animal that lives in the environment.
—Plays cooperatively and has imaginary friends and also engages in imaginary play.	—Staff should respond in a timely manner to children's wants and needs.	—The child is asked to pick out something in the natural environment that is not natural; followed by a discussion on litter.
—Rebels when adults expect too much or correct too much; children are very independent.	—Staff expectations should match the children's problem-solving approach to learning.	—Children imitate movements made by the staff (e.g. the sun rising, a tree growing, rain falling).
—The children can skip and hop on one foot; balance is improving.	—Staff prepare the environment for the children to participate. They can be told where not to go and what not to do but will need reminders.	
	—Staff can provide more activities and materials which are less concrete.	
	—Directions and re-directions are given clearly in relation to the children's use of the language; they can be given three steps at a time.	

TABLE 3
Unique characteristics of five year olds, implications for their leanring environments, and sample experiential curricula.

Unique characteristics (five year olds)	Considerations For Their Learning Environments	Sample Curriculum: Environmental Awareness
—Language is well developed and the child learns to take turns appropriately during conversation. —The children can give and receive information. —The children have motor skills such as; jumping rope, jumping a distance up to six feet, and walking a balance beam. —The child of this age begins to choose own friends. —Children like to play simple and competitive games. —Usually follow rules, but may not in order to win. —Curious about events and people in her world.	—Provide opportunities for use of reading and writing activities. —Provide small group decision making activities. —Provide activities requiring large group discussion and problem solving as well as those for individual decisions.	—Each child is seated around the tree. In front of each child is a pile of natural material. Each child, in turn, is asked a question about their items (e.g. What object is food for a squirrel). —A piece eof tape is placed six feet up in tree. The group has to work together to figure out how to get piece of tape down. —Children are told to think of the tree as a apartment building. The top is the attic, the middle is the second floor, the lower part the first floor, and the ground is the basement. Then ask the children which animals live in the different levels. —Each group member is given an animal sound to imitate. Each animal is assigned twice. Children make the animal sounds and try to match the pairs.

TABLE 4
Unique characteristics of six year olds, implications for their learning environments, and sample experiential curricula.

Unique characteristics (six year olds)	Considerations For Their Learning Environments	Sample Curriculum; Environmental Awareness
—Very active and boistrous; motor skills are well developed. —Likes to be the center of attention. —Takes and shows pride in accomplishments. —Language is well developed and used effectively to express feelings and to give and receive information.	—Staff provide opportunities for children to be exposed to a variety of reading materials. —Staff allow the children opportunities to use their problem-solving abilities learned from reading. —Staff allows the children to make group decisions.	—Children circle tree, holding hands. The leader has tied a branch together in the form of circle. The leader makes a break in the chain and places the hoop between two children. The children have to pass the hoop around the circle by stepping through the opening with hands together in a chain. —Child is placed in the center of the circle and blindfolded. The leader picks one of the group members to make a sound like an animal. The child in the center has to point to the sound maker and identify the animal. —Children are given a stethoscope and is told to listen to the heart-beat of the tree (can be done on trees with smooth bark). Compare tree sounds to child's heartbeat.

their learning environments at that age and the third, a sample experiential education curriculum on environmental awareness. Each column alone contains important information to experiential education programs for young children. However, the process of interrelating the information of all three provides the more comprehensive approach to these programs.

These milestones and skill sequences are interdependent upon one another for maximum growth and development for children at all ages. However, for younger children that interdependence is more readily observable and critical (Zimiles, 1986). The younger the child, the fewer the skills to evaluate or contend with in regard to developmentally inappropriate situations. It is more readily observable because the child who does not have the skills with which to engage herself in a situation or perform the skill needed, does not participate. In other words the child reacts in a whole way when only part of the situation may be troubling or only one skill is lacking. This prevents her from engaging in the situation, from interacting with her environment, and from learning; therefore, making the interdependence more critical.

The impact of interaction development with an environment that provides a variety of experiences and does so in an increasingly more complex way is well established. In order for that interaction to be optimal it must be matched to the child's level of development (Dunst, 1982; Hunt, 1961; NAEYC, 1986).

In addition, environmental interactions are of most influence during periods of most growth (Zaichkowsky, Zaichkowsky & Martinek, 1982). The individual planning environmental interactions for young children must be aware of the skills that they have, the skills that they are learning and the skills that are unrealistic for them to use. The program must include in the planning, active participation by the child. The leader should observe the actions that the child uses in response to materials and events provided (Heshusius, 1987). Interactions planned with this information will provide the optimal match for the child to use her developmental skills and to learn more complex skills.

Traditional Approaches to Planning Programs for Young Children

Researchers and theorists who study child development and learning have documented that young children learn from interactions with and by acting upon their environments (NAEYC, 1986; Piaget, 1950) even though these processes are complex. Therefore, programs designed to educate young children must include environmental arrangements and adult responses which maximize action and interaction.

However, only providing opportunities for action and interaction does not ensure learning. These opportunities must be provided in meaningful and relevant contexts (NAEYC, 1986). Moderate amounts of discrepancy must be between the child's existing skill repertoire and the skills being learned (Bricker & Bricker, 1978; Piaget, 1950). This discrepancy helps to motivate the child to action and interaction. By adding these components to the opportunities for interaction, programs facilitate learning that is both developmentally and individually appropriate. The interactive processes of learning form the foundation for instructional content and strategies in early childhood education (Lay-Dopyera & Dopyera, 1986; Schickedanz, Schickedanz & Forsyth, 1982).

How children are allowed to develop experientially is in part influenced by the style in which they are cared for at home and in school. The nature in which a child views a challenging situation is affected by how opportunities are presented. Educators in turn, are influenced programatically by the literature they read. Materials prepared for educators of young children, which include experiential learning in the natural environment, is conspicuously absent.

Consequently, for this section, materials have been reviewed from this domain in an effort to discover how educators and care-givers are advised in developing experiences for young children. Gross motor movement is an area in which young children grow through challenging themselves. Questions asked include; Is planning for experiential learning a programmatic consideration? Are children encouraged to take risks by allowing for this process within the environment or activity plan? And finally, how are educators influenced in regard to challenging children to grow through the use of new experiences?

Challenging children through mind and body, which in turn develops ego-strength and self worth, is a focus in creating creative play environments (Cherry, 1976). Play is seen within the context of education for children to develop confidence through the stages of risk a youngster experiences. For example, the "guarded approach" leads to the "daring hero" which leads to the "flying batman" at four and one-half years. Children are challenged through the space in which they play. Consider the following: as young children gain confidence in the use of their developing skills (balance, strength, perception, coordination) they are eager to test these skills in active play. Outdoor play spaces which contain play equipment (tricycles, swings, slides, balance beams, climbing aparatus) and natural areas (logs, trees, rocks, hills) naturally challenge children, through curiosity, to test their developing skills. When opportunities exist for children to use their skills, they take calculated risks which can be repeated until mastered. These small steps in mastery are part of the developmental process. Children then take risks in environments they have created, yet the concept of risk in the learning process is not developed.

A dominant theme emerges with play and the developing child (Oppenheim, 1984). Movement is seen in terms of physical/emotional growth in contributing to a child's total development. Safety and providing a safe feeling in movement is a focus of movement exploration (Sullivan, 1982). Allowing children to have the freedom to observe activities until they feel safe is the suggested practice. For example, when children are grouped by age, skill levels vary. Those children who have lesser developed skills benefit from being allowed to observe other children in play. An example may be jumping from a low height. Skilled landing on two feet may be modeled by older children while others develop the confidence to take the risk and feel safe in participation. Teaching concepts, providing opportunities for exploration and feeling safe in an activity are principle concerns throughout early childhood education. Couched in a firm directive to allow children to feel safe, outdoor play spaces are usually controlled, confined environments. Few writers feel that an outdoor play space should include trees to climb and hide in, providing a special challenge and opportunities to develop problem-solving and risk taking skills (Sullivan, 1982). Risk-taking as a process to use with young children is not a curriculum area traditionally developed for young children.

Young children enjoy challenge as evidenced by their repetition of movement patterns that have not been mastered (Curtis, 1982). Children challenge themselves naturally by the motor activities they choose to engage in. Teachers are called to provide an environment where learning can occur through successive challenges appropriate for the developmental level.

However, most educators have not been provided information on facilitating growth through experiential learning. Inferences are made however, to allow children to grow from risks they pose for themselves (Cherry, 1976; Sullivan, 1982). The lack of instructional materials for educators of young children addressing experiential learning indicates a void in resource materials available to educators interested in teaching young children in natural environments.

Rationale For Including Young Children in Experiential Programs

The goal of any program which plans to educate or provide learning experiences for young children is to facilitate optimal growth and development. Major components in determining how to best facilitate this process include a definition of the skills involved and of the environment in which the program is to occur. An active evaluation of the interrelationship of these components has been shown to most accurately define competence for a given individual (Bricker, 1967).

Historically, the philosophy, goals and objectives given for the use of experiential education are consistent with curricula suggested for young children. L. B. Sharp, considered by many as a founder of experiential learning, (1943, pp.363-364) suggested,

> That which ought and can best be taught inside the schoolrooms should there be taught, and that which can best be learned through experience dealing directly with native materials and life situations outside the school should there be learned.

Often times the young child is not provided the opportunity to be in real environments using real materials. There is a tendency to bring native or natural materials into the classroom instead of studying the object in its natural habitat. When the object being studied, a reptile for example, is in its natural habitat, there is a greater chance for concrete learning. The following case study amplifies Sharp's thesis:

> A teacher of young children planned to enhance sensory awareness among students. He bought a sophisticated tumbling mat which had different textures on it — soft, hard, coarse, etc. The same objective could have been achieved more naturally by allowing students roll outside over leaves, grass, packed dirt, etc. Moreover, by implementing the activity outdoors additional sensory stimuli could have been realized.

Programming in the natural environment is well suited for the provision of sequential experiences (Roland & Havens, 1981). The young child, who depends on her skills developing from simple to complex, and excels from adaptations made from interactions within an increasingly more demanding environment, is at home in the natural environment. The flexibility of each outdoor activity and the challenges which can be manipulated by an outdoor leader serve to address the needs of the young child; including, active involvement and participation, inclusion in a variety of activities, and an opportunity for individual and group decision-making. Experiential learning allows the leader an opportunity to take a simple activity and make it accessible to the skill level of each group member (Robb, Havens and Witman, 1983). This flexibility, within an activity, allows the facilitator to challenge the skill level of each child in a group without having to segregate students by abilities. For example, when working on balance, the facilitator can challenge a student with exceptional motor skills by having them walk up an inclined log backwards. A student with less developed gross motor skills can be challenged by walking the same beam forwards with assistance. The fact that the activity is out-of-doors may add to the excitement of enhancing motor skills.

Educators have not been guided to incorporate spontaneous learning in the natural environment. Young children have unique characteristics which need attention in order to provide programs for optimal development through experiential education. Exposing young children to different learning environments easily accommodates their interest in novelty. As eager participants, young children arrive ready and willing to explore.

Conclusion

Experiential education offers programs that can promote optimal growth and development for children between the ages of three and six years. The traditional goals of these programs include all of the components to promote learning in young children. In addition, the goals have many inherent advantages for and automatic matches with this age range. These include: being in real environments and using real materials, offering opportunities for physical and mental activity both separately and jointly, focusing on active involvement and participation, offering a variety of activities and including opportunities for individual and group choice and decision making, providing opportunities to simultaneously use current skills while learning new ones, and providing for the successful participation of a wide range of individuals within the same activity. However, a three year old is not just a small adult nor does she need to wait until she is older or larger to be considered an appropriate candidate for an experiential education program. With additional information and planning, leaders can serve young children effectively. She is a different person with a set of developmental skills that, while defining what she understands and how she participates does not limit what she learns from a developmentally appropriate experiential education program.

She requires that the planning and implementation processes include the uniqueness of her skills and learning processes. Making current experiential education activities easier will not make the planning or implementation appropriate, they must be different. This difference includes an understanding of the developmental characteristics of this age range, developing activities that reflect the age characteristics, and implementing them with a focus on what the child does throughout the process. The goal being to facilitate the child's competence in a variety of contexts. Adopting existing experiential activities to accommodate the unique characteristics and special considerations (see tables) provides the young learner with new opportunities for growth that reflect the special knowledge of an experiential educator.

Recommendations

Young children deserve the opportunity to have access to the benefits of experiential learning. Ideally, professionals involved in experiential education are encouraged to combine their resources and expertise with experts in early childhood education. In order to optimize the effectiveness of programs, the authors suggest the following recommendations:

1. The goal of experiential education programs for young children should be the "process" of developing their competence. The authors are using Bricker's (1967) definition of competence: "description of the relationship in which the repertoire of the individual is sufficient to meet the demands of a given environment".
2. Experiential education programs for young children should match the child's level of development with an appropriate activity, "not just an easy because she is little" activity.
3. Evaluation of experiential education programs for young children must include what the children did during the process of participating, how they did it, and not focus on their completion or non-completion of the event or activity.
4. Develop programs that include a range of activities for the participants.
5. Use information about the child's developmental skills in determining the activities, their implementation, and their evaluation.
6. Use language and communication skills that are relevant to the activity and at the child's level of understanding.
7. Give the children time and opportunity to communicate with the facilitators and with one another.
8. Have sufficient staff in order to meet the needs and wants of the children in a timely manner.

9. Provide the children with choices that have been planned by the staff to be ready for full use and activity.

10. Staff expectations must match the learning process of the individual children and the group as a whole, depending upon their age.

11. Staff must plan to receive more than one right answer with younger children and plan for activities that support this. In other words, do not plan group games that have a lot of specific rules and one correct outcome with three year olds.

12. All activities must be planned to interrelate skills and learning processes from all developmental domains.

13. Staff must expect, encourage and support both physical and mental actions from young children within the same activity.

14. Staff must prepare the environment and activity to include exploration and observation by the children.

15. A balance of active and quiet events should be provided.

16. A balance of individual and group events should be provided.

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Connecting People and Planets

Clifford Knapp

Some visionaries have noted that humankind is integrally connected to the universe. This recognition is critical to our survival on earth. The purposes of the article are to illustrate some of the connections that people have with the planet and to challenge outdoor-environmental educators to promote this concept in their programs. The "connections" theme is developed through examples from the past and present. The point is made that we must be equally concerned with the human element as well as the non-human aspects of nature. The challenge set forth to educators is to comprehend the key connections that exist among people, rocks, trees, wildlife, and other earth entities and to develop more effective programs that educate their clientele.

KEY WORDS: *Connectedness, Natural Interrelatedness, Symbolic Connections, Technology, Networking.*

In his book, *The Proper Study of Mankind*, Stuart Chase (1948, p. 305) poses two great questions: "How shall we come to terms with nature?" and "How shall we come to terms with our own kind?" Part of the answers to these questions hinges upon a recognition that humans and the rest of nature are integrally connected.

Life is full of connections - although we are not always aware of them. Becoming more aware of life involves discovering some of these connections. Fritz Perls, founder of Gestalt Therapy, said that "awareness . . . - by and of itself - can be curative" (Walsh, 1984, p. 103). Perhaps he meant that becoming aware of our world cures apathy and ignorance. When we find awareness suddenly, we call this insight and "aha" experience and when we find it slowly we call it wisdom. Haiku, a Japanese poetic form, is defined as a "record of a moment of emotion in which human nature is somehow linked to all nature" (Henderson, 1967, p.22).

The connections that people make reveal who they are and what is important to them. Ants are connected to aphids when they extract a sweet liquid from them or carry them to shelter. Rocks are connected to glaciers when they have been

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moved or worn smooth by them. A wool sweater is connected to sheep when their wool has been used to make it. You are connected to me as you receive these words and encode them into personal meanings.

Marilyn Ferguson, author of *The Aquarian Conspiracy*, (1980), believes in a "small world phenomenon" that states we are just five first-name acquaintances or closer away from everybody else. She believes that if we hand a letter addressed to a bishop in Massachusetts to a person in Iowa, that the Midwesterner can find an acquaintance who can send the letter to another acquaintance, and so on, and finally reach the bishop without involving more than five people who know each other.

Sometimes, we can better understand our connections with the earth by taking a short journey in our minds. The following guided imagery is adapted from an activity titled, "Water Wings", developed by Project WILD (WREEC, 1986) a successful supplementary environmental education curriculum. "Water Wings" is part of a series of new aquatic lessons designed to give students a sense of their connection with the world's oceans. All of the seas on earth are connected and in some way, all the fresh water is linked to the oceans. Consider the molecules in air that surround us; they connect us to the waters of the world. Get comfortable and relax. Take a few deep breaths, and take a journey around our water planet.

> You are sitting on the edge of a stream . . . your bare feet are swinging in the clean, clear water. The water feels good, and it's the right temperature. You feel the current washing over your feet, pulling at them. Think about the water flowing past your feet until it reaches a larger body of water. The water connects you with it. Feel its more powerful flow. See the green ribbon of trees and plant life on the banks. The larger waterway carried the water past flat farmlands, past cities, factories, and forests eventually reaching the sea. Through your feet and the continuous currents of water you can feel the sea. Now stretch your mind and realize that you interconnect with all the world's oceans. You are now touching one single body of water that stretches all around the world. Your touch laps against the shores of the Pacific Ocean, it flows under the Golden Gate bridge, it leaps and plunges around oil drilling platforms in the North Atlantic as a storm rages dark and gray. A native Indian shivers on the Arctic shores before her parka begins to warm her. A Greek fisherman's son in a warm Mediterranean Sea tugs fiercely on the fishing nets. Water connects your feet with every stream flowing into the oceans around the world. You can reach up the rivers to the hearts of continents — you can feel the tremor of the hippopotamus which just dove into an African river. You feel an alligator silently sliding toward a heron in the Florida everglades. You feel beavers busily building a dam on a stream in Europe. Your reach embraces all the whales, all the porpoises, all the sharks. You are connected with the mythic creatures, living only in the minds of people in the past — mermaids, citizens of Atlantis, and the monsters that swim in Loch Ness. Your feet feel the flow of the current of the miles-wide Amazon River in South America, the ancient Nile River pushing north through Africa, the Colorado River thundering with a boatful of river rafters through the Grand Canyon. Your watery embrace wraps all around the Earth. And, of course, the water flowing over your feet connects you with everyone else who is now sitting, with feet dangling in a stream, wondering where the water goes...It's

time to come back. Bring the limits of your senses back from the world's rivers and oceans . . . back to the surfaces of your feet . . . back to where you are.

Now that you have returned from your mental survey of the oceans of the world, consider how we tend to forget about our unity with each other and the planet. Sometimes we use language to separate us from our environment. We tend to divide things on the planet by creating different word categories. The people who do this could be called the "splitters". They set off people from nature, night from day, indoors from outdoors, good from bad, and natural science from social science, to mention only a few. In reality these entities are never completely separated from each other. Our educational system has divided knowledge up into different subject areas that we usually learn one at a time. Although splitting them has some benefits, it also creates serious problems. When we separate the interrelated parts of our planet, we often fail to understand the connections among them. We could label the people who perceive these connections as "lumpers". The outdoors is especially suited to helping us understand the wholeness of knowledge and the interconnections among the components of our environment.

The word "connect" is intriguing. It comes from Latin "to bind". The word is also related to the Latin word - "nodud" or knot. *The Aquarian Conspiracy* by Marilyn Ferguson (1980), describes many connections. The word conspire is derived from the Latin "to breathe together". Ferguson calls our attention to the need for a new guiding pattern of thinking. The title of the book simply means "a plotting together to make our modern-day world work".

Knowledge that is learned separately is often interconnected in reality. Over the years, my interests have spanned Native American philosophy, nature, and science, psychology, values, and group dynamics. The links among these topics are now clearer. Some Native Americans view animals such as deer, beaver, and skunks as people. They also believe that there is a mind-inside-the-skull as well as a mind outside in nature. Some people believe in what is called the Gaia hypothesis, which speculates that the earth is a living organism that carries on many of the same functions as an animal or plant. Human intelligence is many-faceted, not one thing to be measured with a single test. Howard Gardner, author of *Frames of Mind* (1983), believes that we have at least seven different intelligences and that the ways we now use to determine a person's IQ are severely limited. We know a lot more about group dynamics, human relations, and how people change than we are now applying. Most people prefer to learn in different ways and therefore, we as teachers, need to vary our teaching styles to accommodate them. People also have different personality types, and because of this, they see the world through different lenses. All of these apparently separate pieces of information now seem more connected to me. One of my goals has been to help people see more connections between nature and human nature through outdoor leadership. Perhaps such a person can be described as a global therapist.

Outdoor-environmental educators have long heard and read that they need to teach about ecological connections. These relationships extend to the total world and beyond the planet - not just to the rocks, trees, and wildlife. This message has been repeated in many ways over the last century. Theodore Roszak stated in his book, *Person/Planet* (1972), "that the needs of the planet are the needs of the person. Therefore, the rights of the person are the rights of the planet."

John Muir said, "When we try to pick out anything by itself, we find it hitched to everything in the universe." (Brower, 1964, p. 154). Albert Schweitzer challenged man, "...to think about the mystery of his life and the links which connect

him with life that fills the world..." (Van Matre & Weiler, 1983, p. 133).

Hymeyohsts Storm, writing *Seven Arrows* (1972, p. 5), believed that "the universe is a mirror of the people, each person is a mirror to every other person" ... "The tiniest flower can be such a mirror, as can a wolf, a story, a touch, a religion or a mountain top". Barry Commoner wrote the first law of ecology: "Everything is connected to everything else" (1972, p.33). Sun Bear and Wabun, modern-day writers, sum it all up when they wrote, "We have forgotten that we are connected to all of our relations in earth, not just our human family. We have forgotten that we have responsibilities to all of these relations, just as we have them to our human families" (1980, p. 4).

A Zen master claimed that our true nature is an aspect of a universal consciousness. We are more than our body and mind. The universe is not outside of ourselves. The mountains, the sea, and the stars are part of your body and we are connected to all life. If we truly believed this, then problems with other people and nature are not only "out there", they are also "in here" within us. We would not pollute the environment to the degree we do because we would know we are polluting ourselves. We would not treat ourselves and others unkindly because we would know that we are abusing the environment.

Our growing technology has worked both for and against our connections with the planet. On one hand, we now have the technology to explore with microscopes, binoculars, satellites, and telescopes. We possess more power to manipulate living things through genetic research and alter other natural cycles. We also have more tools to explore the inner universe of our mind and body.

When we fertilize crops, apply pesticides and herbicides, seed clouds to make rain fall, build water treatment and sewage plants, process foods, raise plants and animals for food, manufacture new products, and invent medicines to cure disease, we are entering into natural cycles with the intent of helping humanity. Sometimes our impact has been judged negative and sometimes it has been judged positive. There is a lot of debate about whether we should continue to influence these cycles or whether we should return to a simpler life-style and leave them alone.

On the other hand, technology has broken many of our connections with the planet. As we build homes and other buildings and regulate air temperature and humidity, we cut ourselves off from the outdoors. As we increase the hours in front of a computer, "boom box", television, video games, or other machine, we reduce the time that we can explore nature with our senses. According to Carl Jung (1964, p. 95) we are gradually becoming separated from our "unconscious identity" with natural phenomena. Nature is losing its symbolic function in our lives. For most people, thunder is no longer the voice of an angry god, rivers no longer possess a spirit, and mountains no longer speak to us nor do we speak to them. As our symbolic connections with nature die, so does our emotional energy for living. Jung believed that we can only meet the demands of life when we are in harmony with ourselves, and we can only adapt to our inner world when we have adapted to environmental conditions (Hall & Nordby, 1977, p. 75).

In many cases the products of science have been used to attempt to dominate and tame nature. Science is a methodology - a way of seeking answers to certain questions. It is not a total world view. Science cannot deal with the most important questions in life such as: Who am I? What is most important to me? Where should I be going? and Should we care for the ecosystems on this planet and beyond? If we cause the earth or the individual forms of life on it to die, we diminish ourselves to that extent. If we don't treat the planet and its living things with respect, we are not caring for ourselves.

On a recent flight from Denver to Chicago a violent thunderstorm closed O'-Hare airport and diverted us to Detroit until the storm passed. The pilot's voice over the speaker blamed "Mother Nature" for the delay and nature became the villain in the eyes of many passengers. People's schedules had to be rearranged and some were annoyed at the inconvenience. Almost everyone was thinking in terms of their own human time frames and not considering the water cycle which was essential to their survival. They were suddenly awakened to the fact that certain parts of nature were beyond their control and that we had to adjust to the planet's life-sustaining systems. Technology can only mask our awareness of nature for a limited time.

One of my favorite books is titled, *The Other Way to Listen* by Byrd Baylor (1978). It is the story of how an old man teaches a young boy to take time to listen to nature.

> [the old man] . . . told me how a friend of his once heard a whole sky full of stars when she was seven. And later on when she was eighty three she heard a cactus blooming in the dark. At first she didn't know what she was hearing. She found it by just following the sound. There were twenty flowers on one cactus and they were all white as the moon. The old man said, "Most people never hear those things at all." I said, "I wonder why?" He said, "They just don't take the time you need for something that important." I said, "I'll take time. But first you have to teach me." "I'd like to if I could" he said, "but the thing is . . . you have to learn it from the hills and ants and lizards and weeds and things like that. *They* do the teaching around here." "Just give me a clue how to start", I said. And so he said, "Do this: go get to know one thing as well as you can."

When is the last time you took the time to view a sunset, watch a bird build a nest, observe a spider wrap its prey in silk, watch a dew drop evaporate in the sunshine, or sleep out under the stars? As society we have allowed science and technology to break some of our connections with nature more than we have used them to connect us. Technology has the potential to increase our awareness of our world, but some of us have used it to blind ourselves. Perhaps we need to learn a lesson from the societal scientists who help young people to distinguish between good touch and bad touch. In the same way, we might divide our impact on nature into good tech and bad tech and choose more of the former.

One of the most confusing dualities ever created by people is between "man and nature". When you think about it, you realize that we are an environment for others and we are also a part of a larger natural system. The meaning of the word "natural" can be confusing because everything that science can explain is natural or it would not be describable. Because we are a part of a giant natural system, everything we do is natural - maybe even polluting the atmosphere and creating acid rain. One of my favorite outdoor activities comes from a teaching aide called *Essence Cards* developed by the American Geological Institute (Environmental Studies for Urban Youth Project, 1971). One of the cards presents the challenge to "go out and find positive evidence that something natural happened". The unabridged dictionary lists twenty definitions for the adjective "natural" (Websters Third International Dictionary: Unabridged 1971, pp. 1506-1507). Look the word up and count them. Two definitions relate to having a connection between or relationship with someone or something.

The field of outdoor-environmental education has just begun to respond to the needs of people disconnected from the planet. We have only touched a small percentage of the total population with our programs. For example, Outward Bound, Project Adventure, National Outdoor

Leadership School, and others have made some progress in providing adventure opportunities for some. The crucial part of their programs are not the climbs, rappels, or miles traversed. What is important are the leaders, the participants, and what the individuals learn about themselves, others, and the planet. The processing or debriefing sessions of these outdoor experiences is the key to connecting people to each other and to the planet. We need to become more skilled in helping people process their adventures and influence their changes after returning home from outdoor experiences.

At the root of youth disconnection is low self-esteem. If we don't think highly of ourselves, who will? Imagine if all of our outdoor leaders made raising self-esteem a major objective. We would then develop more outdoor activities that help people think better of themselves. Imagine if outdoor leaders thought that self understanding was an important program goal. We would then develop activities to affirm ourselves and become more aware of feelings, take sensible risks, defer judgement, and identify personal needs and wants. Imagine if outdoor leaders thought that getting along with others was as an important program goal. How would our outdoor programs be different?

One of the new trends in education is cooperative learning. Already, there is a growing body of literature which reports that cooperative skills are associated with gains in student achievement and interpersonal skills (Rasinski, 1984, p. 93). David and Roger Johnson, professors of education at the University of Minnesota, reviewed 122 studies conducted from 1924 to 1981 on competitive, cooperative or individualistic classrooms. They found 65 studies showing that cooperation promotes higher achievement than competition, 8 showing the reverse, and 36 showing no statistically significant difference (Kohn, 1986, p. 25-26.).

The International Association for the Study of Cooperation in Education (Center for Teaching and Learning, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND) is a network composed of researchers, practitioners, or both. All of the membership is interested in cooperative learning and teaching methods. Bill Hammond, Director of Environmental Education in Lee County Florida, doesn't think that some administrators and teachers are ready for cooperative methods as replacements for competition in the classroom, so he is trying to sell the idea of "cooperition" - a combination of the words cooperation and competition. The middle schools in Lee County, Florida have built challenge ropes courses so that students can learn cooperative skills. Another example can be found in the province of Saskatchewan. A summer camp for teenagers devotes the weekly sessions to developing cooperative skills. If we really believed in improving human relations, we would develop program activities to practice skills of empathizing, validating, trusting and listening to others.

Cooperative networks are gaining in popularity. More than 15 million Americans now belong to networks which are designed to help each other deal with personal problems. In networking, rewards come by empowering others, not by climbing over them (Waltz, 1983, p. 191).

Many national networks already exist in this field. We need to extend our networks around the globe because pollution of people's minds and the outer environment doesn't stop at political boundaries.

A new word that isn't in the dictionary yet is "bioregionalism" (Nexus, 1986). A new movement indicates that we are becoming more aware of the connections between people and planets. A bioregion or "life territory" is a geographical area in which the boundaries are set by nature - flora, fauna, water, climate, rocks, soils, landforms, and the human culture which results from the interaction of these elements. It is not only a physical region, but it is a psychological identification with a place. People are organizing informal in-

stitutions to initiate change within a bioregion. The origin of this term has been traced to a Canadian poet and biogeographer, Allan van Newkirk, who coined it in 1975. The idea of viewing problems from a regional perspective was the primary way that early humans dealt with their survival as hunters-gatherers.

An example of a bioregional approach to an environmental issue is occurring on the border of Canada and the United States where the province of New Brunswick and Maine meet along the St. John River. There the ground water on both sides of the border is contaminated by agricultural chemicals which are linked to a high incidence of neural birth defects. High levels of nitrates, mostly from fertilizers, can form cancer-causing substances which create these problems. Scientists are also finding traces of pesticides in the water which are sprayed on the potato crops to control the Colorado potato beetle. They can detect nitrates and pesticides in the water, but they don't know for sure what effects these chemicals will have on the human body. Despite the common problems shared by the two nations, the U.S. and Canada have not yet fully cooperated to solve it from a bioregional perspective.

Another important word that is not in the dictionary is "eco-justice". Eco-justice means doing justice to the whole creation (Engle, 1986, p. 3). The term is a combination of the concepts of ecological wholeness and social justice. Eco-justice extends the idea of justice to the earth as well as its people. Eco-justice describes the application of a global philosophy. Every effort to achieve economic, racial, political, and gender justice involves solving the problems of the earth's resources. Every effort to protect the natural systems involves social development. Neither goal can be achieved without the others. William Gibson at Cornell University is a proponent of eco-justice and offers a subscription to a periodical title *The Egg*.

Ancient and modern religions have advanced the idea of "nature" and society as a wholistic kingdom. The root meaning of the term religion is a "binding together". Religious rituals symbolize information and feelings about relationships. Genesis 9:9 described God's covenant with the people and the land in this: "Behold I establish my covenant with you and your descendants after you, and with every living creature that is with you. . . ."The English reformers of the 18th century saw the world as one vast fellowship of life and spoke on behalf of the rights of all oppressed - animals, slaves, the poor, and women. Today, Thomas Berry, director of the Riverdale Center for Religious Research in New York, calls himself a "geologian" rather than a theologian. He is primarily concerned with our relationship to our planet and all of its living and nonliving resources.

In 1984 a network of outdoor leaders who were interested in human relations skills and programs was formed. The Human Relations Skills Network for Outdoor Leaders (Oregon, IL) now has over 350 members and is growing steadily. Imagine if we all became global therapists and focused on caring for and about people *and* planets. Wars would become history and violent crime would become old fashioned. Peace - around the world - would be the rule and not the exception. Security would be assured because the people would living in harmony. We could heal the earth and its beings.

Delores LaChapelle (1978) uses a metaphor to express the importance of establishing a relationship with all the beings in a community. She describes how a peach requires the leaves of the tree to provide it with the sun's energy through photosynthesis; the trunk of the tree to hold the branches high in the sky to reach the sun which ripens it; the rain to provide the water it needs; the minerals from the soil brought to the peach by the root hairs and vessels; and the soil to provide the support for the tree (p. 118). All of these components of the community are necessary to bring a peach to maturity. If the peach

is picked green for shipp...g it never tastes the same a a tree-ripened one. We, like a peach, need to ripen and reach maturity by staying connected to what nurtures us.

Imagine, if we all had the kind of education which helps us put things together as well as take them apart. Our programs would teach us the connections between the earth, sky, and people of a particular place by putting us into direct contact with them. We would have an education that teaches people how to feel a sense of personal power and to have ideas about how to care for themselves, others, and the planet.

Developing more effective educational programs to teach about our connections with all of nature is essential if we are to survive on this planet. Let it not be said that humankind was not able to answer Stuart Chase's two great questions. We must and we will.

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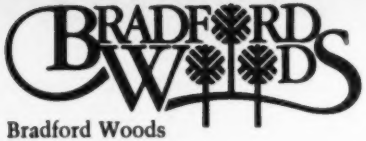

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